

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 1, 1882.

The Week.

THE deadlock in the House of Representatives was broken on Monday by the adoption of a new rule, which prevents the blocking of business by dilatory motions when the consideration of contested election cases is in question. The Democrats tried to cover their discomfiture, which every sensible man predicted would overtake them, by a protest against the new rule, in which the latter is, of course, denounced as revolutionary, and subversive of "one of the great monuments of the representative system," meaning the power of a factious minority by obstructive tactics to keep a member of their party in a seat in the House to which he is not entitled. In the preamble to this protest the signers of it allege that they "resisted the efforts of the majority to consider the case of Mackey against O'Connor, because a proper hearing had not been granted to the contestee by the Committee on Elections as to the allegations of forgery and fraud in the evidence submitted by the contestant." Here the Democrats admit themselves that they have resisted not a decision of, not a snap-judgment on, the case, but the consideration of it, although this consideration is the very thing they should have desired as an opportunity for showing that their allegations against the Committee on Elections are true. They will have that opportunity now, and all that is required to fill the measure of their distress is a failure to make good their charges, which is very probable.

The plan of harassing an enemy by mentioning some dead man who would be deeply grieved, or, as the phrase is, would "turn in his grave," could he see what was going on, is one very familiar to newspaper warriors, but it generally indicates that the supply of ammunition is nearly exhausted and that peace is near. We, consequently, may fairly treat the *London Standard's* suggestion that the fact that Story and Wheaton and Kent were American jurists makes the demand of the American State Department for a trial for American suspects "a pitiable spectacle," as a sure sign that no legal answer to the demand is forthcoming. It is made the more significant by the fact that there is not in either Story, Wheaton, or Kent a scintilla of support for the doctrine that a government which in a time of profound peace does not find its judicial machinery working satisfactorily, may, instead of amending the machinery, give up trial altogether, lock up on suspicion as many foreigners whom it finds with in its borders as it pleases, keep them confined indefinitely without trial, and refuse to answer all inquiries as to the nature of their offence. There is no support in any writer, American or foreign, for such a wild pretension. The mention of Story, Wheaton, and Kent in connection with it is simply a form of vitu-

peration. That Earl Granville or Mr. Forster should have advanced such a pretension shows the bewildered condition into which the Irish problem has thrown the English mind. The only change which the difficulty that the British Government finds in getting Irish juries to convict or Irish witnesses to testify would justify, in the forum of international law, is the institution of more summary modes of trial, or the expulsion of obnoxious foreigners. War only can create such powers as Mr. Forster has been treating himself to.

Several Western politicians have admitted to the *Herald* their solemn conviction that a Western man should be put in Mr. Lowell's place. None of them mention any American citizen whose rights Mr. Lowell has failed to protect. What they complain of is apparently that he has not shown the Court of St. James's the kind of rage he would get into if the rights of an American citizen were infringed—like the showman's elephant, who,

"When he's irritated, makes the following noise."

Mr. Williams, of Wisconsin, says "the woods are full of such men"—that is, of possible Western successors of Mr. Lowell, who would represent "the sturdier elements of American society." Mr. Orth, of Indiana, spoke with much feeling of what he had seen at Vienna of the tendency of American representatives abroad to "cultivate with fervid avidity social relations with foreigners." He would have them stand apart, "grand, gloomy, and peculiar," and not go chattering round the gilded saloons of the Continental capitals, as they do now, in foreign languages, neglecting their own tongue and their own people.

Mr. Springer wants Judge Jerry Black to represent us in London, but we do not think this would be wise from the "sturdy" point of view. The Judge is "sturdy," but he is a lawyer, and he would get in with the English lawyers and junket with them, and when the dungeons began to be filled with Americans would take legal views of his duty, or, in other words, sell us out for dinners and receptions. In fact, this is a matter on which it is hard to know whom to trust. Many will say, "Why not send Mr. S. S. Cox?" but he is intelligent and perhaps susceptible to flattery, and is literary, and when the British critics got round him and puffed his books he would forget his hatred for the Crown and the aristocracy. In fact, there are few men, East or West, who can resist the blandishments of a great wicked city like London. Western politicians think they can stand it, but we know them better than they do themselves. London peanuts and ice-cream are more seductive than they imagine. They beard the British lion far better on the prairies than they do in his home in the Tower of London.

Washington despatches state that Senator Beck has proposed in the Finance Committee an amendment to the National Bank Bill, providing that if any bank "discriminates against

silver," its charter shall be annulled. We trust that it will be made sufficiently clear in the amendment what act or acts constitute "discrimination against silver." Probably Senator Beck has in mind a resolution adopted by the New York and Boston banks some two years ago, to the effect that they would only receive silver on deposit from parties who would agree to receive it back in payment of checks. This is called by some people "discriminating against silver," whereas its object is merely to put the banks on the same footing as their depositors in the matter of silver. In other words, it aims to prevent the public from making the banks a common dumping-ground for silver by depositing it and then not taking it back, or raising a fuss about it when the banks tender it in payment of checks. Of course, a bank could legally force silver on those who present checks for payment, but the attempt to do so would make trouble at once. The idea of Senator Beck is that everybody should have the right to discriminate against silver except the banks. His amendment, if passed, would have no sort of effect, for the reason that it is no discrimination against silver to require people who deposit it to receive it again. All that it would be needful for the banks to do to avoid even the appearance of discrimination would be to pass another resolution, declining to receive gold on deposit except from persons who would agree to receive it in payment of checks. Then the situation would be in appearance exactly what it is now in fact, and there would be no discrimination for the law-making or the law-executing power to put its hands upon.

The freetraders had a large dinner on Friday, at which there was much interesting speaking, but the most interesting topic of all—the prospects of free trade—was treated by Mr. David A. Wells. He was hopeful about free trade on account of the actual spread of free-trade ideas in the public mind, but more on account of the labor crisis which he thinks protection is undoubtedly preparing for us, and which, when it comes, will be very serious. We are gathering into this country, as he pointed out, a vast body of foreign laborers of a very low class, whose wages, under the protective system, must necessarily be small, and whose turbulent discontent we have no proper means of coping with. They are turning out increasing quantities of goods, to the consumption of which our own population is inadequate, and we have no foreign markets, and our tariff prevents our finding any, for our surplus. The chances are, therefore, that the final and complete breakdown of the protective system will come through the suffering of the laborers, for whose comfort protectionists pretend that the tariff is framed.

In an interesting letter to the *Evening Post* some time ago Mr. John Ronch contended that he, as a shipbuilder and engine and boiler maker, could not compete with European constructors because the laborers of his own beloved land demand higher wages

than are paid to the people of the down-trodden nations of the Old World. He therefore insisted that high tariffs and prohibitory navigation laws were necessary to put him upon an equality with his foreign rivals. But we have had occasion more than once to direct the attention of Mr. Roach to the fact that he is not always and everywhere so responsive to the demands of workingmen as he is in the newspapers and when he goes before Congressional Committees. He has just shown again that he can at times harden his heart to the appeals of the laborers of his own beloved land. The boiler-makers of this city have asked for more pay, and are enforcing their request with a strike. According to the story of one of them lately published, there is substantially but a single obstacle to their success. There is only one man, he says, "that we have really to fight, and he will fight us longest." Will it be believed that this solitary and stubborn person is none other than Mr. John Roach, that patriotic citizen who insists upon the continuance of restrictive legislation in order that the demands of American workmen for high wages may be granted? A high tariff enables Mr. Roach to make and sell boilers at a price beyond what they could be bought for from the pauper-employed manufacturers beyond the sea. He does this, we have been led to believe, not in his own interest, but for the sake of the workingmen. We might expect, then, that Mr. Roach would be the first to accede to the demand of the boiler-makers for an increase of wages instead of being the first and last to oppose it. It is painful to hear one of them saying that he is "the only man we have to fight," and predicting of this champion of highly protected labor that "even he must yield."

The prosecution of General Curtis for collecting political assessments has terminated in a verdict of guilty on two counts of the indictment. This result can hardly fail to have an excellent effect, not only as an example to other Government officials, but in settling the question that wringing money out of Government clerks, under what amounts to a threat of the loss of their positions if they refuse, is an illegal extortion, which the Government does not encourage or wink at, but undertakes to suppress. With such a deep-rooted abuse as that of political assessments the great difficulty in the way of reform is that it at length begins to wear the air of a lawful and laudable custom, so that the victims do not resist or resent its continuance, but regard it as part of an established order to which they must necessarily submit. One of the most amusing features of the trial of General Curtis was that some of the money collected appears to have been entered on a victim's check-book as paid "pro bono publico." The verdict will no doubt do something to encourage the unfortunate Custom-house clerks to remember that the District Attorney does not take this view of the character of such assessments.

Some newspapers are trying to persuade themselves and their readers that the conviction of General Curtis will not have much effect in stopping the levying of assessments,

because the party managers will hereafter evade the statute by having the money collected by officers who have been confirmed by the Senate. But this view overlooks the fact that the statute makes the payment of money for political purposes to "any other officer or employee of the Government" an indictable offence. An officer or employee who has been confirmed by the Senate may under the statute ask for and receive money for political purposes, but no officer or employee who has not been confirmed by the Senate can lawfully pay it to him, so that all such officers and employees will now have to bear in mind that if they pay an assessment for political purposes to any officer of the Government, high or low, they expose themselves to prosecution and a fine of \$500. We think we may add, too, that in this city at least no effort will be left untried by the friends of reform to bring all such offenders to justice. Of course the collection of assessments may be done by persons not in the Government service at all, but as a general rule they do not offer themselves for this work with alacrity, and do not perform it efficiently. It is the requests of brother officers that employees have most to fear. Before long we trust the persecution of the clerks in Government offices for money by anybody whatever will be prohibited also.

The Geneva Award Bill, having passed both houses of Congress, will become a law in a very few days unless the President vetoes it. The principal objection to it is that it provides for the payment of claims which have no legal validity, and makes no provision for the payment of the claimants to whom the fund actually belongs. We may suggest, moreover, that there is a political objection to the bill which deserves consideration apart from this. The "war-premium" claims provided for in it are claims against Great Britain for money paid as "war rates" by owners of ships and cargoes in excess of what would have been paid had not all maritime risks been greatly increased during the Rebellion by the Rebel cruisers fitted out in England. Now, these claims were presented at Geneva and ruled out by the Tribunal as being altogether too remote to be considered. The bill just passed must be based on the idea that though ruled out by the court they got into the verdict in some unexplained way, and thus it amounts to a formal declaration that claims against a neutral of this character are not too remote, but must be paid; and not only this, but that our war-premium claims actually have been paid by Great Britain. In any future European war the United States will probably occupy its natural position as a neutral, and if any cruisers escape from our ports and prey on the commerce of any of the belligerents—for instance England—we shall unquestionably be confronted with "war-premium" claims similar to those which were presented at Geneva. Our Secretary of State will then, of course, in reply to them, remind the Government which makes the demand that these claims were ruled out at Geneva; but to this it will be answered, "How can that be, when you took the money and paid your war-premium claimants with it?" Considerations like these may

seem altogether too unpractical for the Senate and House, but they ought to have some weight with the State Department and the President.

Boss Cameron's doings seem to be troubling his friends very much. His indiscreet threat henceforth to fight the protective tariff if the manufacturers fail to support him, has, according to all accounts, made even Stalwart business men angry. Now, he has also, for the purpose of nominating a candidate for Congressman-at-large, caused the old Convention to be called together again. The President of that Convention, Mr. Lear, loudly declares that, since the Convention adjourned without day, it is absolutely defunct and cannot be revived; and that if a Convention is to be called at all for the purpose indicated, it must be called in accordance with the rules laid down in the reform platform recently adopted at Harrisburg, and ostensibly accepted by Mr. Cameron and his friends. To call the old Convention together again, Mr. Lear thinks, would be a clear repudiation by the Stalwarts of the reform platform, and dissolve all the bonds of good-faith and fellowship between them and the rest of the party. A new break is therefore eminently probable. Troubles seem to be accumulating to such an extent that Mr. Cameron may soon wish he had never been boss.

The confession of Fitzgerald, the banco swindler, who is now on his trial in Boston for defrauding Mr. Charles Francis Adams by enticing him into a gambling-den and extorting checks from him in payment of pretended losses, is full of instruction as to the reason why this kind of knavery flourishes as it does in all our large cities. The fellow was extraordinarily impudent and confident when making it in the presence of the detective in the office of Mr. Adams's lawyer, and the reason of his impudence and confidence was plain. "In these cases," he said, "there was generally a struggle at the beginning, but these checks were always paid"; and he added that "he was as sure this one [Mr. Adams's] would be paid as if he had the money in his pocket." In other words, he counted, with a certainty derived from experience, on the unwillingness of the victim, or the victim's family, to seek justice, at the cost of having his weakness or folly exposed in court. A very large number—by far the largest number—of these frauds are perpetrated on elderly men or simple-minded professional men from the country, whose memory for names or faces has begun to fail, and whose geniality makes them unwilling to repudiate any person of decent appearance claiming acquaintance with them. The rest follows as a matter of course. In this case the knaves were not sufficiently careful in the selection of their victim. The condition of Mr. Adams's faculties was such as to make him an easy prey, but this very fact also made it easy to bring the matter into court, even if his sons were not probably the least promising persons in the United States for a scoundrel to try to extract hush-money from. Fitzgerald could hardly have been a Bostonian, or he would not have cherished that childlike confidence which he so freely

expressed, in the readiness of the "Adams boys" to negotiate with him.

The news comes again from the Indian Territory that "Oklahoma Payne" and twenty-nine other "colonists" who attempted to invade the Indian Territory and to effect a settlement there have been arrested by the military and "taken back to Kansas," and that "the authorities have not yet decided what to do with them." The same vagabond has been arrested for the same offence and "taken back to Kansas" nearly half a dozen times, and the authorities have never known "what to do with him." Why not? Because the law provides only that white persons found invading the Indian Territory for unlawful purposes shall be put across the line; and in case of a repetition of the offence, they shall be fined a certain sum of money. But as Payne and his fellow-colonists are of the impetuous kind, and no fine can be extracted from them, they are time and again punished only by being "taken back to Kansas," where the authorities always "find themselves unable to decide what to do with them." The upshot is that "Oklahoma Payne" makes the invasion of the Indian Territory his regular business, finding all the time new dupes who "go in" with him for the founding of settlements on the Indian lands. Ever since these invasions commenced, Congress has been urged in the most pressing manner to put an end to these disgraceful and ridiculous proceedings by enacting a law making the offence punishable with imprisonment, so that "the authorities may know what to do" with the ruffians caught in the act. Until such a law is enacted, Oklahoma Payne will continue to invade the Indian Territory once or twice a year merely to be "taken back to Kansas."

The humors of the James affair in Missouri do not cease. Frank James, Jesse's "wayward brother," for whom he used to pray at prayer meetings when he joined the Baptist Church in Texas, is anxious to give up robbing and lead a quiet life, and is negotiating for this purpose with the Governors of Missouri, Texas, and Minnesota. What the negotiation is about does not clearly appear. In all negotiations properly so called, each side has something to offer in return for what it expects to receive; but Frank James apparently has nothing to offer, except his giving up a life of crime to live quietly on the proceeds of his crimes. Nor does it appear even that he proposes to give it up because he is tired of it. His real reason seems to be that he is suffering from a wound in the lungs received when he was robbing a bank at Northfield, Minnesota, and wishes to pass the summer at an Eastern watering-place. The Missouri despatches say that pending the negotiations with the Governors, which are carried on under a "flag of truce," there is an "armistice" between the belligerents, during which James is residing in St. Louis, which city apparently lies within his lines. Mrs. Frank James is in the meantime visiting her father, Colonel Ralston, who lives in "the Ralston Mansion" in Independence, Mo. She eloped with Frank in 1875, her young imagination being touched by his robberies and murders.

She is accompanied by her son little Jesse, so called after his late lamented uncle. Mrs. Jesse, it was at first said, had joined a circus company, but this is now contradicted. The latest news is that she has contracted with an eminent literary man, George Riches, of South Pueblo, Col., for twenty lectures on her late husband's career, and he is to deliver them in the area over which Mr. James robbed and murdered, Mrs. James sitting on the platform with her two children as one of the attractions. It seems as if Colonel Ralston, of the "Ralston Mansion," might also profitably offer himself to the lyceums with a lecture on Frank, and some account of the feelings of a father whose daughter has married a distinguished highwayman.

The Rev. Dr. Newman, the well-known Stalwart minister, who says he is a "Stalwart" from intellectual and religious conviction, but resolutely refuses to tell anybody what a "Stalwart" is, on Sunday preached a sermon on "The Nation's Dead." It was on a Sunday morning, be it remembered, and he was in church, not at a Stalwart dinner, nor on the stump, but in the pulpit, with the Bible open before him, and in the middle of Divine service, with the most solemn obligations to be truthful and accurate in his statements resting upon him which can rest on a human being. Nevertheless, he gave this account of the doings and sayings of the civil-service reformers:

"This republic had erected monuments, it had provided generous pensions to widows and orphans. But there are a class of miserable, sickly sentimentalists, quasi-civil-service reformers, who say that the noble soldier should be thrown out from the civil service because he could less accurately locate the North Pole and the equator than some other who stayed home and learned these things. Every clerical office in the country, so far as practicable, ought to be filled by men who served in the late war, and by their widows and orphaned daughters."

What is oddest in all this is not so much that the Newmans should talk in this way in their pulpits, but that there should be so little anxiety among religious people about the effect of their talk on religion.

The *Times* publishes three pages of opinions on Southern politics. They have been gathered with evident care, but it may be doubted if the information is as trustworthy and valuable as that concerning the crops which the same journal printed some time ago. The *Times* finds that the letters taken as a whole "do not furnish any evidence of substantial dissatisfaction in the Southern Democracy with the Democratic party as a national party." The value of the evidence depends to a degree upon the authorship of the letters. They were written by the editors of Democratic newspapers in county towns. Perhaps no better source of information than this was within easy reach; but, while the local journalist ought to know what local opinion is, in politics his views are apt to be those of an optimist. Usually it is his duty and desire to promote union and harmony within his party. It is natural for him to believe that the union he wants really exists. He is greatly tempted to report, not what is, but what he thinks ought to be. One way to secure harmony is to assert that perfect harmony

prevails. The country editor, however intelligent, is usually a strong partisan, and it would be a marvel of ingenuousness for him, if he suspected that there was dissatisfaction in his party, to disclose the fact to a leading newspaper of the opposite party. The worth of these letters might be more accurately estimated if they were offset with letters from other journalists—Republican editors, Independent editors, discontented Democratic editors.

The Egyptian crisis has been moving through so many different phases with such rapidity that all comment on it seems idle. The ostensible cause of the present phase of the trouble between Arabi and the Khedive, is that the latter commuted the sentences passed by a court-martial on some Circassian officers convicted of a conspiracy against Arabi's life. The Ministers, who are Arabi's creatures, thereupon resolved to call the Notables together to depose the Khedive, therein exceeding their powers. At this point both sides began to prepare for war, and, as anarchy was spreading over the country, the two Powers at last peremptorily intervened. Their policy was pretty clearly foreshadowed by M. de Freycinet in a recent speech in the French Chamber. He said in substance that France and England were in perfect accord, and would remain so; that the other Powers were satisfied to leave the settlement of the Egyptian difficulty in their hands, and they would settle it. He did not say plumply, but he did indicate pretty clearly, that under no circumstances would Turkey be permitted to meddle in the affair. The Sultan has long been dying to interfere, and, if the matter had been left to England alone, might possibly have been allowed to do so; but on this point France is apparently inexorable, having in mind the trouble he has given her in the Tunisian question. The English and French agents then presented an ultimatum to the Ministers, calling for the removal of Arabi Bey from the country, but leaving him his rank and pay, on receiving which the Ministers resigned. There was a rising of the Army and the Notables, which put Arabi back as Minister of War, with the whole power of the Government really in his hands, and the Khedive surrendered to him almost without a word. Arabi then set the Powers at defiance, denying anybody's right to interfere with him except the Sultan, and the Powers came to the conclusion that the Sultan was egging him on, while apparently condemning him, in the hope of being finally called on to intervene. In the meantime, anarchy, or something very like it, reigns at Cairo, and the Europeans are flying with their valuables, the soldiers having apparently got out of hand. The allied fleets are at Alexandria, and can demolish anything within range of their guns, but they cannot reach Cairo, and Arabi and his men will not come within range. The ships can only land 300 men, it is said, to assail his 3,000, and no others are near at hand. The latest news is of an identical note said to have been presented to the Sultan by the English and French Ministers at Constantinople, calling on him to summon Arabi to explain his conduct in person.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THE Administration has begun in earnest to use the patronage of New York State for the advancement of the Stalwart interests. On Thursday James W. Bentley and John A. Luby were nominated for the offices of Collector of Internal Revenue and Surveyor of Customs of the port of Albany respectively. The present incumbents of these offices have filled them in a satisfactory manner, but they are not in sympathy with the Administration. It is thought that this is but the beginning of a "crusade" against the "Half-Breeds" in New York State.

Circulars from the National Republican Campaign Committee have been received by the employees at the Capitol in Washington, in which each employee is informed that he will be expected to contribute two per cent. of his annual salary toward the campaign fund which is to be used next fall. These circulars impose an assessment of \$25 on each door-keeper and about \$10 on the page boys.

The Senate has passed a bill to distribute \$200,000 among the officers and crew of the iron-clad *Monitor*, which was engaged in the fight in Hampton Roads, on the 9th of March, 1862.

The Senate Finance Committee has practically decided that the House requirement of ninety days' notice for the retirement of the national-bank circulation shall be stricken out of the Bank-Charter Extension Bill and a new provision inserted in its place. This new provision is to allow deposits of currency for the purpose of releasing security bonds and retiring circulation to a maximum amount, not exceeding three million dollars per month; the release of the bonds to be made in all cases in the exact order of the reception of the deposits by the respective banks within the proposed maximum.

The Mackey vs. O'Connor election case has occupied the House of Representatives for the last week. This case arose out of a contest from the Second Congressional District of South Carolina, which was submitted to the Committee on Elections, who found that there had been fraud in the election, and that Mackey, Republican, was entitled to the seat in the House in the place of Dibble, Democrat, the successor of O'Connor, deceased. At the election to fill the vacancy caused by the death of O'Connor, which resulted in the election of Dibble, the Republicans refused to vote, alleging that there was no vacancy, as O'Connor had never been entitled to the seat. The majority of the Committee on Elections having found as above, the Democrats began a long filibustering to prevent the consideration of the case, on the ground that the charges of forgery and fraudulent interpolation had not been properly investigated by the Committee on Elections. A deadlock resulted, which was only broken on Monday by the adoption of an amendment to the rules shutting off dilatory motions in such cases. The debate on the amendment was exciting, and resulted in a scene of disorder, the Speaker being totally unable to control the House. The Democrats have signed a protest against the ruling of the Speaker which made possible the passage of the amendment to the rules.

The Attorney-General has decided that ex-Secretary Kirkwood is ineligible for appointment as a member of the Tariff Commission.

Secretary Teller has decided that the claim of certain Chippewa Indians to the Turtle Mountain district lying to the north and west of Devil's Lake in Dakota, is invalid. This decision opens up nine million acres of the finest land in Dakota, and has caused great excitement in Dakota. Thousands of settlers are ready to rush in as soon as it can be formally opened.

The one hundred and fourteenth call for the redemption of bonds of the loan of March 3, 1863, continued at three and a half per cent. from July 1, 1881, was issued on Saturday.

The Secretary of the Treasury has prepared a circular to collectors of customs prescribing the form of certificate to be delivered to Chinese laborers departing from this country, entitling them to return under the provisions of the Act recently passed. It is provided that the certificate shall be printed on bank-note fibre paper so as to guard against counterfeiting.

Vice-Admiral Stephen C. Rowan, who has been selected by Secretary Chandler as Superintendent of the Naval Observatory in Washington, has formally accepted the office.

The Census Office has issued a bulletin showing that by the census of 1880 the number of persons in the United States was 50,155,783; the area in square miles, 2,900,170; the number of families, 9,945,916; the number of dwellings, 8,955,812; acres to a person, 37.01; persons to a dwelling, 5.60; and persons to a family, 5.04.

The State Convention of the Independent Republicans of Pennsylvania met in Philadelphia on Wednesday. Senator Mitchell was chosen temporary chairman, and made a speech in denunciation of "bossism" and in advocacy of civil-service reform. The platform adopted declares attachment to the principles of the Republican party; deplores the fact that the calamity of Garfield's assassination has been followed by the overthrow of the reforms his election signified; denounces the spoils system, "boss" rule, and "Machine" control of the party; demands the reformation of the civil service by law, and declares in favor of reforms in the party rules. The ticket nominated is as follows: Governor, State Senator John Steward, of Franklin; Lieutenant-Governor, Levi Bird Duff, of Allegheny; Secretary of Internal Affairs, Mayor George W. Merrick, of Wellsboro; Congressman-at-large, Colonel William McMichael, of Philadelphia; Justice of the Supreme Court, George Junkin, of Philadelphia. The ticket is generally considered a strong one, and the Stalwarts are said to be much troubled by the strength the movement shows.

The National Committee of the Greenback-Labor party has adopted an "address to the American people" denouncing monopolies of all kinds; a platform opposing telegraph and railroad monopolies, and calling for the substitution of greenbacks for national-bank currency; and a petition to the President requesting him to veto the bill for the rechartering of the national banks, should it pass the Senate.

The Straight Greenback State Convention of Maine met at Bangor on Tuesday. Resolutions were adopted asking that the Government buy bullion with greenbacks, demanding the abolition of all banks of issue, and approving the acts of the National Committee. Solon Chase was nominated for Governor.

At a meeting of the New England Woman Suffrage Association in Boston on Tuesday a letter was read from Governor Hoyt, of Wyoming Territory, pronouncing woman suffrage in Wyoming an unqualified success. Resolutions were adopted regretting the death of James T. Fields, Ralph Waldo Emerson, S. S. Foster, and other friends of woman suffrage.

The General Assemblies of the Presbyterian Church, North and South, in session at Atlanta, Georgia, and Springfield, Illinois, on Saturday, appointed delegates to attend each other's Conventions next May.

It is probable that one of the most extensive lockouts in the history of the iron industry will begin on the 1st of June. In the Pittsburgh district alone fully 40,000 men will be thrown out of employment. The employers and the Amalgamated Association have been unable to come to any terms. The Association proposes to start stores to deal out groceries, etc., to the strikers in case the grocers and others decline to sell on time to the members of the Association.

The annual report of the Board of Trade of Cincinnati shows a growth of the manufacturing interest. The total value of the goods

manufactured in the city during the year is \$204,079,867—an increase of thirty per cent. over the previous year. A feature in connection with this growth is the fact that the number of manufacturing establishments has been reduced, showing that the business is being monopolized by the large houses.

It is stated that Mr. Reed, Guiteau's counsel, applied to Justice Gray, of the Supreme Court, on Friday last, in Boston, for a writ of habeas corpus for his client, and that Judge Gray refused to grant the writ until the case had been presented to his associates.

The arguments on the motion to quash the indictments in the Star-route cases were concluded on Monday, and Judge Wylie overruled all the points made against the indictment by the defence. Unless further dilatory manoeuvres are successful, the trial of the conspirators will begin on Thursday next.

The Supreme Court of Ohio on Tuesday declared the Pond liquor-tax law, which has aroused much opposition from the liquor-dealers, unconstitutional, on the ground that it is of the nature of a license.

The Honorable Lionel Sackville West gave a large dinner at the British Legation in Washington on Wednesday evening in celebration of the Queen's birthday. The members of the Cabinet, with the exception of Mr. Folger and Mr. Howe, Senator Davis, Speaker Keifer, the Diplomatic Corps, and many other prominent men were present. Secretary Frelinghuysen proposed the health of Queen Victoria and responded to the toast of the President of the United States.

The St. Paul (Minn.) *Pioneer-Press* has printed crop reports from about sixty points on the Chicago, Milwaukee, and St. Paul Railroad not covered by recent reports. Nearly all agree that the weather is very favorable both to wheat and coarser grains. From the river division, which runs through a heavy wheat country along the Mississippi, reports of condition and prospects vary. Wheat is generally looking well, though it is backward on account of cold rain, and on some cold soils it looks thin and poor. In other places it already begins to show the need of more rain. The Cincinnati *Commercial* has information from nearly all the counties of Ohio, Indiana, and Kentucky as to the condition of the growing crops. Wheat throughout these three States has rarely looked better in May than it does now. The frosts of the middle of April have proved a benefit rather than otherwise.

One of the worst accidents that have happened in the Schuylkill, Pennsylvania, coal regions for a number of years occurred on Wednesday afternoon at the Kohinor Colliery at Shenandoah. Six men were killed and three so badly injured that they may not recover. The accident was caused by some of the miners uncovering their safety lamps, which, as the mine was very full of gas, caused an explosion.

Lieutenant Danenhower, Dr. Newcomb, Cole, and Long Sing, four survivors of the *Jeannette* Arctic expedition, arrived in New York on Sunday.

Despatches from Arizona announce that some of the Apache Indians are on the war-path. They have attacked several ranches in the valleys and driven the stock into the mountains. The miners in the mountain ranges are alarmed, and have organized for defence.

FOREIGN.

There has been a crisis in Egypt. England and France sent an ultimatum to Mahmud Barudi demanding the temporary removal of Arabi Bey from Egypt, with retention of rank and pay, and the resignation of the Ministry, and giving the Government twenty-four hours to come to a decision. On Saturday it was announced that the Ministry had resigned, after refusing the demands of England and France and referring them to the Sultan. Upon resigning, the President and Council of Ministers sent two notes—one to the Khedive and one to the agents of England and France

—in both of which they took the ground that the intervention of the foreign Powers in the present instance was an infringement of the right of the Sultan of Turkey. The British and French Consuls-General then called on Arabi Bey and declared that they held him personally responsible for the maintenance of public security. The Khedive announced to the officers and other Notables that he would personally assume supreme command of the troops and maintain strict discipline. The officers replied in insolent language, and declared that they would never accept the ultimatum offered by England and France, nor recognize the right of interference of any power except Turkey. Shortly after this the military commander at Alexandria, the Notables, Ulemas, and other military officers demanded the reinstatement of Arabi Bey. The Khedive refused the request, and said that the Porte supported him in his refusal. On Sunday, however, the Khedive was forced to yield and reinstate Arabi Bey, as he was informed that an armed force was in readiness to make him a prisoner if he refused. Before he was restored to power, Arabi Bey gave assurances to the diplomatic agents of Germany, Austria, Italy, and Russia, who had declared that they held him responsible for public security. It is said that England and France are convinced that the Porte has openly encouraged the Khedive while secretly countenancing the action of the Army, the object being to bring about Turkish intervention, and that England and France have accordingly threatened the Porte with foreign intervention unless the watchword of immediate and complete submission is given to the Egyptian Army. The immediate despatch of a Turkish squadron to Egypt with an Imperial Commissioner is probable.

Lord Dufferin and the Marquis de Noailles, the English and French Ambassadors at Constantinople, presented to the Porte on Monday an identical note recommending the summoning to Constantinople, from Egypt, of the three military leaders and the ex-President of the Council, to answer for their conduct.

Tuesday's despatches from Egypt were of a contradictory character. Arabi Bey is said to have been circulating statements that he had received a telegram from the Sultan announcing the deposition of the present Khedive and the nomination of Halim Pasha to succeed him. The British community at Alexandria has appealed to the British Consul for greater security against the disorderly soldiery. The joint English and French fleet, though able to silence the forts of Alexandria, can only spare 300 men to meet the Egyptian garrison of 3,000, who are daily becoming more and more exasperated.

A despatch from Tunis says that the French authorities are greatly irritated by intelligence that Turkish troops have disembarked near the frontier, between Tripoli and Tunis, in order to reinforce a camp already existing. The submission of the insurgent Arabs is now regarded as improbable.

There was an exciting debate on the Repression Bill in the House of Commons on Wednesday. Mr. Gladstone denounced Mr. Dillon for approving outrages by refusing to assist the Government in carrying the bill. Mr. Dillon replied that he had always denounced outrages. In regard to the objection of the Irish judges to the supersession of juries, Mr. Gladstone declared that if Parliament were to allow the judges to interfere in the framing of the bill, they would abandon one of the most important functions of the Government. He said he thought the institution of a special tribunal was necessary, but this question could be discussed in committee. He deprecated a long discussion of the bill, and said no good could come of it, as it would engender animosity between England and Ireland. Sir Stafford Northcote said that whatever fault might be found with the Government's Irish policy, the Conservatives ought to give a solid vote for the bill in the interests of peace and

order. On Thursday Mr. Parnell made a very moderate speech. He said he regretted the Government had not confined itself to the Arrears of Rent Bill, which would have brought about a settlement of Irish affairs. Fresh coercion would simply play into the hands of the secret societies. Mr. Trevelyan made a speech, in which he admitted that the Government sent simultaneously messages of conciliation and coercion, but pointed out that the messages were not sent to the same address. He also said that the powers granted by the Repression Bill in regard to public meetings would only be exercised where meetings were part of the machinery of violence and disorder. Mr. Cowen offered an amendment to the bill declaring that while the House is desirous of aiding the Government in the detection of crime, it disapproves of restrictions upon the free expression of public opinion in Ireland, which was rejected by a vote of 344 to 47.

A memorial signed by forty-seven Liberal members of Parliament has been presented to Mr. Gladstone, urging a reduction of the period in which the Repression Bill shall be in force, and a modification of the clauses in regard to intimidation, public meetings, and the press. So much opposition has been shown to the Prevention of Crime and the Arrears Bills during the last week that there seems to be little prospect of either measure becoming a law before a late period in the session, and the rules for regulating the procedure of the House will therefore probably be put off till next year. Should the forthcoming debates indicate any factious spirit of obstruction to the Prevention of Crime Bill, the Government will make a declaration of urgency in order to hasten forward the measure.

Lord Salisbury, speaking at Stratford on Wednesday night, dwelt on the importance of constituencies preparing for a general election, which, he said, must speedily occur. He severely censured the Kilmainham compact, and described the Arrears of Rent Bill as a measure for paying the debts of persons from a fund on which they have no claim.

A letter from Mr. Davitt to Bishop Nulty, of Meath, violently denouncing landlords and demanding Home Rule, has been published. Bishop Nulty read the letter to the assembled clergy of his diocese, who received it with enthusiastic applause. In this letter Mr. Davitt says the Irish have been accused of not giving the Land Act a fair trial, but that the truth is they refuse to give landlordism any more trials. He also says that the Repression Bill is an act for the better encouragement of secret societies.

Archbishop McCabe was enthroned with imposing ceremonies at the Catholic Cathedral at Dublin, on Sunday. In replying to addresses after his enthronement, the Cardinal expressed his belief that, in spite of the ominous shadows now cast on Ireland, there was yet a bright future in store for her.

The London *Standard*, discussing the correspondence between Mr. Lowell and Secretary Frelinghuysen touching the Irish suspects, says it is a pitiable spectacle to witness the Foreign Office of the nation to which Story, Wheaton, and Kent belonged repudiating the elementary principles of international law at the bidding of a few Irish rowdies in New York and electioneering wire-pullers.

In the House of Commons, on Thursday, Sir Charles Dilke said that confidential conversations had taken place between Lord Lyons, the British Ambassador to France, and the Mexican Minister at Paris regarding the resumption of diplomatic relations between England and Mexico, but that they had thus far proved fruitless.

A movement has been started in England to raise a memorial to the late Charles Darwin, by establishing a fund associated with his name, the proceeds of which will be devoted to the furtherance of biological science.

An official denial of the engagement of the Princess Beatrice to the eldest son of the Landgrave of Hesse has been published.

The race for the Derby Stakes at the Epsom summer meeting on Wednesday was won by the Duke of Westminster's chestnut filly Shot-over. Lord Bradford's Quicklime was second, and Mr. Pierre Lorillard's Sachem third.

A despatch from London announces that Herr Neumann has nearly concluded arrangements for a visit to America with his German Opera Company early in 1883, to perform the "Ring of the Nibelung" and other operas by Wagner.

The Czar of Russia, "desirous to appease the people," as the despatch puts it, has decided to grant reforms. Two commissions will be constituted to consider the question of central institutions and the share in the administration to be given to the people. There is a committee at present sitting to examine local institutions. General Mikhoff is made supreme head of all three commissions. A manifesto will soon be issued stating that the Czar desires to celebrate his coronation by granting reforms, but that he is compelled to postpone the ceremony for a year, because of the impossibility of completing the preparations sooner.

The St. Petersburg *Official Messenger* announced on Wednesday that by order of the Emperor the Government is firmly resolved to punish inexorably all who commit outrages against the persons and property of Jews. Governors and other authorities are therefore commanded, on their personal responsibility, to take timely measures to prevent such outrages, and any remissness in carrying out this order will be followed by dismissal from office. The *Messenger* also publishes the regulations agreed upon by the Committee of Ministers and approved by the Emperor. They provide that Jews shall henceforth be prohibited from settling outside of towns and villages except where Jewish settlements already exist. Jews are prohibited from trading on Sundays and on Christian holidays. All contracts of purchase or tenancy with Jews are provisionally suspended. These regulations are to apply only in governments where Jews are permanently settled. Notwithstanding the Emperor's order, however, outrages continue. The Governor of Kief has issued a proclamation to the inhabitants of Balta, declaring that the authors and instigators of outrages upon Jews will be tried by court-martial, and that if the number of police is insufficient to prevent outrages, the military will be used. The Chief of the Balta police has recommended the Jews to "remain calm," and has assured them of the immediate repression of attempts at outrages.

A despatch to the Vienna *Presse* from Brody says that the Jews there are without bread, and their children almost starving. On Monday evening they noisily demanded bread and means to continue their journey. The authorities were compelled forcibly to restore tranquillity.

A despatch from Paris says that a duel took place on Wednesday evening between the Chief of the Department of Central Administration in the Ministry of Finance and M. Dreyfus, private secretary to M. Wilson, Under Minister of Finance. Both were wounded, but neither seriously. The causes of the duel were violent articles in the *Lanterne* newspaper against the Finance Department, which were written by M. Dreyfus.

Several hundred Communists made a demonstration on Monday in the Cemetery of Père-la-Chaise. Louise Michel was among the speakers. The tomb of Blanqui was visited and adorned with flowers.

A despatch from Madrid says that the revenue receipts of the last nine months show an increase of 22,000,000 pesetas over those of the same period of the previous fiscal year.

TUESDAY, May 30, 1882.

THE TRUE COURSE FOR INDEPENDENTS AND "HALF-BREEDS."

THE President's removals of Mr. R. P. Lathrop from the Internal Revenue Collectorship, and of Mr. W. N. S. Sanders from the Surveyorship of Customs at Albany, to make way for "Johnny" Luby and "Jimmy" Bentley, have almost every element of badness which it is possible for a removal to have. There is no theory of the civil service which supplies a defence for them, and least of all the President's own theory, as propounded in his late message to Congress. They oust faithful and competent officers without cause before the expiration of their terms. They put in their place tricky and disreputable political adventurers, best known as tools of the notorious John F. Smyth, whose misconduct as Superintendent of Insurance was so gross that Governor Cornell, when he renominated him, under party pressure, two years ago, found it impossible to get a faithful Republican Senate, even during the Conkling reign, to confirm him. They offend deeply that portion of the Republican party which proved to be the strongest at the last Presidential Convention and at the last Senatorial election in this State, and which, no one doubts, is strongest at the polls. In fact, it would be impossible to find a man in public life, from the President down, who could consistently defend them. Of course defenders of them can be found, but they are men who do not care about consistency, and are ready on a pinch to lie themselves out of any ordinary "corner." You might call up in succession a representative of every variety of Republican at present in existence, and show him these appointments, and though several would say they liked them, not one would say that he knew of any publicly propounded view of the mode in which administrative offices should be filled which would justify them. In fact, the only defence of them which is attempted is that old one of the late Mr. William M. Tweed, which consists in asking, "What are you going to do about it?"

The denunciation of the appointments is not of course, under these circumstances, confined to civil-service reformers, properly so called. Even that portion of the "Half-Breed" press, like the *New York Tribune*, which has no confidence in the plans of the reformers, and believes in the spoils system (under the name of "practical politics"), inveighs against the appointments in the language of reform, and with tones and gestures of indignation worthy of Mr. Dorman B. Eaton. The reasons it gives for disliking them are almost identical with those which one might hear at the rooms of the Civil-Service Reform Association. This is not surprising, considering how rapidly the public during the past three or four years has begun to perceive that public business, being the business of a body of moral, industrious, and rational beings, cannot greatly differ in its nature and methods from that of moral, industrious, and rational individuals. The perception of this now colors unconsciously nearly everything which even politicians say in describing the evils of the present system. The Half-Breed papers, in fact, in their diagnosis of the disease, cordially agree with the professed reformers, and make

it known vigorously in discussing the President's present policy.

Thus far, however, they say nothing about a remedy, or, if pushed, talk about it in what must be considered a very impractical and visionary way. In fact, the only remedy to which they make any allusion is that old nursery panacea of "being good." They would like the President to be good, and stop removing good officers, and John F. Smyth to be good, and not push bad men for office, and "Johnny" Luby and "Jimmy" Bentley to be good, and not seek offices for which they know they are too wicked and incompetent. In fact, like Smyth, and Conkling, and Platt, and Logan, and Cameron, and all the rest of them, they seem to think it necessary, in order to get good tax collectors for the United States, to raise the whole nature of man several feet, though they always decline to say where the Jack-screw is to be found which is to perform this gigantic operation.

We would now ask them once more, while their grief is still fresh and their minds impressionable, under this great Albany affliction, whether they have ever heard of any great political change for the better being effected by the simple improvement of human character, without aids in the shape of laws and regulations? Has a single governmental abuse of long standing ever been removed in any country by a simple improvement in the moral perceptions of the men who practised it or lived by it? Was slavery abolished by the slaveholders? Was the British Parliament reformed by the growth in grace of the owners of rotten boroughs? Were the scandalous abuses which formerly attended the granting of charters in this State done away with by the resolve of legislators to be pure, and of the promoters of corporations to use only honest means to accomplish their ends? Questions like these seem almost silly, and yet when one reads the comments of the Half-Breed press on the President's doings they seem almost necessary. The answer to them is obvious. Political abuses do not cure themselves. Improvement in human character does not cure them. They have to be cured by legislation, or, in other words, a mode of cure has to be provided by legislation. There never will be any end to the performances by which the President is now surprising the whole country as long as it is left in his power to make and fill vacancies as he pleases, because, as long as this power exists, the power to dismiss without cause will surely be exercised. We have now had experience enough to satisfy any reasonable person of the folly of relying on any President's good intentions, and of the absolute necessity, if we wish for a cessation of these scandals, to provide a mode of entering the service which no one can control or pervert to personal ends. This will take away the great incentive to removals without cause; for be it remembered that Messrs. Lathrop and Sanders would still be in their places if "Johnny" Luby and "Jimmy" Bentley could enter the service only through competition, and could become collectors and surveyors only by promotion. This is the moral of the whole affair. It contains no lesson about human nature, but it does contain a striking reminder of a defect in our laws.

THE REPUBLICAN INDEPENDENTS IN PENNSYLVANIA.

ALL accounts agree that the State Convention of Independent Republicans which took place in Philadelphia on May 24 was a very respectable body, in numbers as well as character; that in it almost every district in the State was represented; that it contained many Republicans of great political influence; and that it exhibited much genuine enthusiasm and unyielding determination to break down the dictatorship of the Camerons. The platform it adopted might have been more explicit, but it is a good platform as platforms go, its real value depending upon the intelligence and spirit of the men who stand behind it. The demand for civil-service reform which it contains, was cheered by the Convention with especial fervor. The Convention put forth a complete State ticket, composed of very respectable names, to run against the candidates nominated by the Cameron Convention, who claim to represent the regular Republican organization. The movement is distinctly one of revolt against boss rule, which in Pennsylvania has made itself especially obnoxious. It was not originally inspired by the desire to put into practice a definite and well-digested scheme of reform; but, the demand for such a reform scheme growing from day to day in extent and urgency, it naturally drifted into taking up that demand, and the peculiar significance of the Convention is that it made this particular object its principal one. The campaign it has initiated may therefore acquire considerable importance, if it is made one not only of exciting, but also of instructive agitation. The real capacity of the movement to leave behind lasting benefits will have to show itself in the first place in this direction.

As to the strength of the revolt, it is evident that it will be much greater than that of the "bolt" led by Mr. Wolfe last year. He polled about 50,000 votes, and would have defeated the Cameron candidates had not the Democrats weakened their own vote by turning a part of it over to Mr. Wolfe. But Mr. Wolfe was not supported by many prominent and influential Republicans who took an active part in the Convention on Wednesday. In fact, the present candidate of the Independents for the Governorship was last year one of those who deprecated Mr. Wolfe's "hasty" movement, and gave a reluctant but effective support to the "regular ticket." It is easy to see that with such accessions the Independents muster very much greater voting strength than they did a year ago, and that, although they will not be able to elect their own candidates, which, a few enthusiastic men excepted, they do not expect, they will have more than enough votes to defeat Mr. Cameron's candidates, thus permitting the election of the Democratic ticket. The Independents do not blink this issue, but frankly declare their determination to deliver the party of boss rule, and thus to regenerate it, at the expense of temporary defeat.

Some time ago Senator Mitchell of Pennsylvania asked President Arthur to withdraw the appointments asked for by Mr. Cameron, for the sake of peace in the party, but the President is said to have replied that

he had been a "practical politician" for twenty-five years, and did not understand and appreciate "abstract politics." He therefore stood by Mr. Cameron, the beau ideal of a practical politician. We wonder whether the President and Mr. Cameron, when they look at this very formidable revolt in Pennsylvania, do not begin to feel some misgivings as to the practical value of the practical politics which bring forth such very curious practical results. Here is the Senator's own colleague, Mr. Mitchell, not at all a restless theorist and innovator, nor a natural defier of the powers that be, but rather a mild and yielding sort of man, not at all inclined to step out of the regular track; and there is State Senator Stewart, an "earnest Republican," who until recently was willing to sacrifice ever so much of his personal pride and his liberal inclinations to preserve the Republican party from harm; and there are a host of others of like disposition, all, at last, actually driven to the declaration that this kind of "practical politics" must cease, and that they stand ready—earnest Republicans though they be—to defeat the Republican party again and again, until it does cease. Can it indeed be a really "practical" kind of politics that brings forth such fruit? Mr. Cameron has also occasion to reflect that when this strong opposing force, provoked by him, has actually overthrown him, which now seems inevitable, his "practical" statesmanship, confined to the manipulation of the patronage, will be entirely exhausted, and will leave him absolutely no resource to put him on his feet again. And President Arthur, studying this remarkable event, may further reflect that such movements are contagious, and that the masses of the party are just in that temper which would evolve like results from like "practical politics" in every State of the Union. There is already a little muttering of a storm observable in Massachusetts not unlikely to break out as soon as the "practical politician" of the Cameron school undertakes to put himself forward in the politics of that State.

It is reported in some of our contemporaries, we do not know upon how good authority, that when President Arthur next visits this city he will "look over the ground" with a view to many "important changes" among the officeholders, which will "make it hot" for the Half-Breeds and "renegade Stalwarts," and bring on "a lively time generally." We are curious to see what "practical" view President Arthur will take of the political situation here, for, as to the general tendency of "practical politics" to produce a "lively time," the State of New York would probably prove no exception. Some premonitory symptoms of it were observable a year ago, and there seems to be now more electricity in the air than there was then.

It is very doubtful whether the President and Senator Cameron will conceive a less contemptuous opinion of "abstract politics" than they now entertain as long as they are in office. But it is quite certain that they will when, after the expiration of their terms, they take a retrospective view of what was and what might have been. It will then certainly occur to them that "practical politics,"

treating the offices of the Government as political perquisites and tools of power, and concentrating that power in the hands of a few leaders—thus not only debasing and demoralizing the whole machinery of the Government, but also driving into desperate opposition a large number of men of character and influence who would prefer to be loyal partisans—are not very practical after all. Further, that the "abstract politics," which would have suggested a candid inquiry into the real needs and interests of the public service, and respectful and harmonious coöperation with that public sentiment which demands conscientious care for those needs and interests, would not have been so very "abstract" after all; but that their acceptance would have been the really practical thing, for it would have saved those who pushed it aside with contempt much trouble and humiliation, besides effectually promoting the public good.

THE REASONS WHY MR. LOWELL SHOULD BE RECALLED.

THE outcry raised by some newspapers against Mr. Lowell has some very peculiar features. They demand his recall on the ground that he has not been sufficiently strenuous in defending the rights of American citizens, but they are wholly unable to name any American citizen whose rights have suffered through his negligence or timidity. Not one of them ventures to say that O'Mahoney, or McSweeney, or McEnery, or Slattery, or Brophy, or Gorman, the six American suspects, is an American citizen in good and regular standing, whose interests have not been properly looked after by Mr. Lowell, and for whose liberation we should be willing to go to war or make reprisals. This, we believe, is something unprecedented in diplomatic history. It makes the attack on Mr. Lowell very like indicting him for the murder of O'Mahoney, not because he had been murdered, but because he (Mr. Lowell) had not displayed sufficient horror at the thought of his being murdered. Mr. Lowell has not displayed any want of zeal in defence of American citizens, but he has expressed serious doubts about the bona-fide citizenship of certain persons claiming American citizenship. It is this doubt which has made all the trouble, and the funny part of the story is that his assailants share the doubt. They do not believe in Citizen O'Mahoney or Citizen McSweeney any more than he does. Nor do they maintain, as they ought to maintain in order to be consistent, that an American Minister ought not to question any man's American citizenship, and ought to accept every Irishman's "papers" as conclusive proof of his title to a certain amount of excitement on his behalf toward the British Government, in case it deprives him of his freedom. They acknowledge that no one is entitled to the patriotic fury of the American Minister in London until he has shown that he is a real and not a sham citizen, an honest man, bent on lawful business, and not a scheming knave, bent on crime.

"Oh," but they say, "Mr. Lowell offered these men a bribe to induce them to waive their claims, such as they were, to his patriotic fury and go home to the United States,

this being the last place to which this class of citizens ever want to go. He actually proposed to give these estimable persons forty pounds apiece to leave their dungeons and return to their beloved country. Was anything so shamefully un-American ever done before? Think of trying to bribe the O'Mahoney, of Ballydehob, to return to the dear old land from which he had been absent during thirteen years of his fifteen years' citizenship, owing to his being engaged in the hateful business of a British taxpayer, officeholder, and grogshop-keeper." Mr. Lowell did make this offer, it is quite true, but if he was wrong in doing so, the wrong lay in being over-generous and over-ready to spend good money on very unworthy objects. His fault here was, in short, the fault, not of a diplomatist, but of a simple-minded philanthropist. In other words, he proposed to pay them for doing what the British Government had a perfect right to compel them to do, if they were American citizens, but had no right to compel them to do if they were British subjects. If the American suspects were really American, the British Government had the right to expel them peremptorily under the law of nations. All the authorities, American as well as others, are agreed on this point. Mr. Bancroft acknowledged it in his correspondence over the German-American naturalization question in 1875. In the well-known Passenger Cases decided by the United States Supreme Court, the right of sovereign States as a police power, resting on what Judge Grier called "the sacred law of self-defence," to expel "persons dangerous to the peace or morals of the community," or persons "with incendiary purposes," was acknowledged incidentally by all the nine judges. This was not the point raised in the cases, which was, whether this power was among those reserved by the States under the Constitution; but that a sovereign State had it, and could not as such deprive itself of it, all were agreed. That no treaty with a foreign power was considered by us as capable of depriving a Government of this right is shown by the fact that the Act of Congress of June 25, 1798, authorized the President to expel such aliens as "he shall judge dangerous to the peace and safety of the United States, or shall have reasonable cause to suspect are concerned in any treasonable or secret machinations against the Government thereof." This was an unpopular law, but it was not considered an unconstitutional law, or a violation of international obligation, for a treaty had been concluded with Great Britain four years before (1794) which gave the inhabitants of each country full liberty to go and come, and "remain and reside, without any limitation of time," in the other country. So that whether the American suspects were or were not American citizens, Mr. Lowell's offer of money to them to pay their expenses to the United States was at worst mistaken charity. He ought to have thought of many better uses for forty pounds than giving it to O'Mahoney and McSweeney to pay their way to these shores, because he might easily have foreseen that even if he had got them to come out here they would not have remained very long. They would in three months have been claiming again the protection of the flag in Ireland.

The "true inwardness" of the whole outcry has been very happily revealed in some interviews on the matter with Western politicians, reported by the *Herald* on Thursday. Senators Farley, Conger, Coke, and Representatives Willis and Jay Hubbell, all Western men, condemned Mr. Lowell's conduct, without describing it, but they all suggested the same remedy—giving the place to a Western man. Senators Logan and Angus Cameron were not prepared to condemn Mr. Lowell outright, but were very sure that if he was recalled his successor ought to be a Western man. The relations, commercial and other, between New and Old England are, they think, too close to make it proper to have us represented by a New Englander in London. He makes us too friendly with Great Britain. The post should be given to a man of less culture, from Illinois, or Colorado, or Kentucky, who would "make things hum" and beard the lion in his den. What this all means is of course plain enough. They doubtless hold, with Mr. Moore, of Tennessee, that a Union widow makes a very good post-office clerk for a while, but that "the existing peculiarities of our human nature" require that she ought to give way within a reasonable time to your wife's brother. In other words, they want a "new deal," and think it is time for the West to have the London mission, too long reserved to the Eastern "littery fellers." It is this which really makes O'Mahoney, of Ballydehob, seem a victim.

THE LIBRARIANS AT CINCINNATI.

ALTHOUGH the Convention of Librarians at Cincinnati may not have produced anything absolutely new, it shows a progress both in the technicalities of the art and in the higher branches of the profession. The *Saturday Review* is continually surprised to find the tiresome details of cataloguing and classification so much discussed on such occasions, forgetting that those who show this interest pass their lives in struggling with the difficulties of the art, and are naturally eager to have puzzling problems solved. In this line the most noteworthy was a very well-written and well-thought-out paper on the principles of classification, by Mr. Larned, of Buffalo. The far more important work of the Convention consisted in emphasizing the importance of the connection between the libraries and the schools, a connection which has often been spoken of during the last decade, the library being called the People's Museum, but until within five years has been rather theoretical than real. That it has come to be an actual power for good is, in a great measure, due to the experiments tried by the Public Library of Worcester, Mass. The head of that library, Mr. Green, was at Cincinnati, and in an enthusiastic address, full of interesting details, showed how the library had been made not merely to continue the literary life of the scholars after graduation—that is not new—and not merely to afford assistance to the teachers; but actually to take part in the school work, by visits of the pupils during the school hours, as a regular part of their studies on certain subjects.

The account was doubly interesting, first, as an example—one of many—that in sociology the best things do not start into existence full grown, but result from the slight progressive improvements which occur to the man who is always on the watch to supersede the good by the better; and, secondly, that an entirely new era of usefulness is dawning upon public libraries, if only men can be found capable of seizing the oppor-

tunity. It needs enthusiasm to undertake and persevere, caution not to undertake too much at the beginning, learning, tact, and a liking for the young to carry it on successfully. These qualities are rare, especially rare in combination; and without them any remarkable success is impossible. But partial success is better than nothing, and they are not likely to be so conspicuously absent as to lead to positive failure. Hereafter, if the work spreads, their possession will be one of the qualifications looked for in a librarian by those appointing bodies who think anything about qualifications.

The experiment has worked excellent results in Worcester. Excepting that Mr. Green cannot be duplicated, one does not see why the same should not be done in scores of our public libraries. It is true that this will introduce an entirely new function into the activity of public libraries, that it will add, to a work that is already somewhat expensive and is viewed with jealous eye by grudging taxpayers, another work which requires in the librarian an even higher order of ability, and will call imperatively for a greater number of assistants. But in the communities which believe heartily in education this will not be a weighty objection. Many of our cities are willing enough to pay for buildings and teachers. In this new work the librarians will be teachers, and the additional expense might well be borne by the school boards. But it will not be necessary to call upon them. When the library thus increases the range of its visible good works, it is likely that there will be less rather than more disposition to find fault with its cost.

A profitable part of these conventions has always been the private interchange of opinion and experience. On the present occasion this revealed the contrast between the Eastern and Western librarians in regard to the tenure of office and the influence of politics. In too many places in the West no length of experience, no degree of fitness for his duties, no amount of devotion to his work will retain the librarian in his post if a new party comes into power. Strangely enough, this does not seem to have prevented the choice of good officers, if one may judge by those who were present at Cincinnati; and the generally steady supremacy of the Republican party of late has allowed them a sufficiently long tenure of office to learn their trade; but we heard of one case where the Republicans succeeded the Democrats, and an officer of worth was expected to yield his place to a man without knowledge either of literature, language, or librarianship, simply because he had always "voted the Republican ticket." Fortunately the Republican papers themselves protested against the blunder and prevented it. As the result of a little inquiry among those present, it appeared that with nearly every one politics had led to his appointment or had nearly led to his dismissal, or was likely to lead to it, or had given him an incompetent school board. In the West, it should be remembered, the public libraries are generally under the charge of the school board, an arrangement which is theoretically laudable, as recognizing the connection that ought to exist between the public system of education and the public's collections of books, but practically very objectionable, as committing the charge of libraries to a body of men who care little and know less about them—men, too, who are elected for another purpose, which too often is simply that they may further the cause of the party by the use of their patronage.

THE ASSASSINATIONS IN DUBLIN. THE EVENTS WHICH LED UP TO THEM.

LONDON, May 12.

THE expected Irish crisis was long delayed, but when at last it came, it came with a suddenness and violence which startled even those who had been best prepared. And it has not yet passed over, nor shown what its results will be. In this letter I can speak only of its earlier scenes.

For some weeks before the 2d of May it had been felt that some change in the Irish policy of the Government must take place. The Land Bill had been for six months in operation, yet outrages went on increasing, and the condition of the peasantry was in many parts of the country no better than before. Thousands were being evicted, many of whom were no doubt unable to pay up the arrears of rent incurred during the bad seasons that had preceded. As many as six hundred persons were in prison without a trial, under the special provisions of the Preservation of Person and Property Act; yet the country was no more peaceful than when that act was passed, indeed less so. The No-Rent party in the House of Commons, although deprived of the leadership of Mr. Parnell, were as bitter and aggressive as ever; the Tories complained of the Government for not keeping order in Ireland; among the Liberal majority there was a growing feeling that either the Coercion Act itself, or Mr. Forster's administration of it, or both, had been a mistake, and ought no longer to be continued. In short, everybody was disappointed and discontented, prepared for a change, though the greatest difference of opinion prevailed as to the direction in which the change should be made.

The first symptom of the coming outbreak was seen in the demand which the representative organ of the advanced section of the Liberal party made for the retirement of Mr. Forster. The next was the liberation on parole of Mr. Parnell, which, although made for a few days only, and nominally for the purpose of enabling him to attend the funeral in Paris of his sister's child, was generally taken as having some further significance. The third was the resignation of Lord Cowper, the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, and the appointment in his place of Lord Spencer, who, as having been Lord Lieutenant in former days, and as a member of the Cabinet, would naturally take a far larger share in the actual government of the country than Lord Cowper had done. Meantime a bill had been brought in by Mr. Redmond, one of the Parnellite section, for dealing with the tenants in arrears, and had been advocated by him in a speech more moderate than had for a long time been heard from any member of that section. Mr. Gladstone replied in similar tones, acknowledging the difficulty and importance of the question, as well as the conciliatory spirit evinced by the promoters of the bill, and promising that the Government would take the matter up, in the hope of helping these poor tenants—if necessary, even by loans from the national exchequer—out of their distress.

This was on the 25th of April, the day of Mr. Darwin's funeral. Two or three days later the Government announced that they would on the 2d of May, the day for which a motion by a Tory member arraigning their administration of the Coercion Act had been fixed, make a declaration regarding their Irish policy. By that evening public curiosity had been roused to the highest point. It was known that something remarkable was to take place, and the unusual incident of a Cabinet Council held in one of the rooms behind the Speaker's chair in the House of Commons at the very hour when the houses were assembling, showed that a final decision was being postponed till the latest possible moment. This decision, as you know, was that

Messrs. Parnell, Dillon, and O'Kelly, confined in Kilmainham since October last, should be forthwith released, and the Coercion Act suffered to expire on the 30th of September without being renewed. Mr. Gladstone intimated that information with regard to the views and intentions of Mr. Parnell and his friends had reached the Government which had had some influence in bringing it to this conclusion. But the most important part of his statement was that Mr. Forster had declined to share the responsibility of his colleagues in releasing the suspects and letting the Coercion Act drop, and that he had therefore resigned his office of Chief Secretary to the Lord Lieutenant.

This announcement, which was accompanied by a statement that when the rules of procedure had been despatched new Irish measures would be brought in, was received with very different feelings by different parties. The Parnellite faction, which had pursued Mr. Forster with unceasing bitterness, and charged all the faults of Irish administration upon him, was in ecstasy. The more advanced half of the Liberal party, who had always disliked the Coercion Act, and would not have voted for its renewal, were scarcely less pleased to be delivered from the necessity of separating themselves from the Government, and to see a prospect of reconciliation with the Irish party opened up. The Tories were, of course, indignant. The change of policy—for such, in spite of Mr. Gladstone's disclaimer, they insisted, and not without reason, on considering it—appeared to them a surrender. To open the doors of Kilmainham Jail to the leaders of the No-Rent party while outrages were still rife in Ireland; to proclaim that the Coercion Act would not be renewed, although there was no security for life and property over the island, seemed to them folly little short of criminal. And in these feelings a certain section of the Ministerial party joined—a section which had always valued Mr. Forster's services, and now conceived that he, in whose hands the administration of Ireland had lain for two years, was more likely to be right on so vital a question than his colleagues. However, they professed to be willing to suspend their judgment till they heard Mr. Forster's own explanation of his views and conduct—an explanation which, according to an ancient rule of etiquette, he was not at liberty to give till he had obtained the consent of the Crown. This was the first scene in the drama: it left everybody anxious—firstly, as to what the Government meant to do; secondly, as to what had been the substantial points of difference between them and their late Irish Secretary; thirdly, as to who would be appointed to fill his place and carry out the policy of the new departure. It was commonly supposed that Mr. Chamberlain, who, as the most advanced Liberal in the Cabinet, was credited, though certainly on no sufficient grounds, with being the author of the change of policy, would be entrusted with it. The Irish members openly expressed their wishes for him, the Tories were filling vials of wrath to be discharged on his head and Mr. Gladstone's.

Thus the Wednesday of this fateful week wore away, amid hopes and fears, and varying rumors, which a burning curiosity caught up. There was a great party that night at Mr. Gladstone's house, the official house, in Downing Street, of the First Lord of the Treasury. The Prince of Wales was there, and the Crown Prince of Denmark. Mr. Gladstone looked, in spite of the anxieties crowding on him, strong and hopeful. Mr. Forster, who had come to show that his separation from the Cabinet involved no breach of private friendship, was greeted with sympathy even by those who had disapproved his policy. Lord Frederick Caven-

dish was there, with no shadow of doom on his frank and kindly face. Distinguished Irishmen were heard expressing their belief that the condition of the country would, for a time at least, improve; some even hoped that the measures for strengthening the ordinary law in Ireland, at which the Government had hinted, might be found unnecessary. An atmosphere of hope was beginning to take the place of the gloom which had so long hung over men's minds. Next day it was announced, about noon, that Lord Frederick Cavendish had been appointed Irish Secretary. Everybody was surprised, and nearly everybody, it must be added, was disappointed. Of Lord Frederick's character and abilities I shall say something presently. Those who knew him best, knew that they justified the Prime Minister's choice. But the House of Commons, which, like every talking body, overvalues gifts of speech and manner, knew him only as an industrious and painstaking Secretary to the Treasury, a modest official who rarely spoke except in committee on matters relating to the estimates, and who spoke sensibly indeed, and with full knowledge of his subject, but neither easily nor fluently. "How," men asked, "will he defend the Government in that constant guerilla warfare which the Parnellites carry on? What administrative experience will he bring to the details of Irish work, where magistrates and police have to be instructed and controlled in duties of unexampled difficulty?" Those who defended the appointment defended it as meaning that Mr. Gladstone, who was attached to Lord Frederick by a specially close friendship, meant to be his own Irish Secretary, and bear the weight of Irish debates in Parliament.

That Thursday evening saw Mr. Forster in the House of Commons, though no longer on the Ministerial bench, and saw every corner of the House of Commons filled as it had not been on any preceding occasion since the election of 1880. The session opened by a painful passage between Mr. Dillon, who, liberated from Kilmainham on Tuesday night, had returned to take his seat, and Mr. Gladstone, with reference to the terms on which he and his two fellow-prisoners had been released, and a string of close and passionate questions pressed on Mr. Gladstone by the Tory members on the same subject. Then Mr. Forster rose to make his statement of the reasons which had caused his resignation. You know its substance. I need write only of its manner and the sentiments it evoked. He was cheered at first by the Liberals as well as the Tories, the Parnellite party alone showing their hatred by their silence. When, after declaring that he would have agreed to the release of the three "suspect" members, had it been accompanied by measures of repression, he observed that in his judgment those measures ought to have had precedence of the resolutions for reforming the procedure of the House, the remark was caught up rapturously by the Tories, whose dislike to the proposed introduction of the power of closing a debate by the majority is intense; while Mr. Gladstone gave a start of surprise and turned half round toward his late colleague behind him. When toward the close of his speech he dilated in terms of growing strength on the danger of concessions to agitation, and warned the country against paying blackmail to violence, he was cheered to the echo by the Conservative Opposition, while his own side of the House preserved for the most part an ominous silence. Mr. Gladstone then, with a calmness that had something melancholy in it, indicated the intention of the Government to bring in, as soon as the procedure resolutions were settled, measures for dealing with secret societies and generally in aid of the powers of

the law, as also a measure for the relief of tenants in arrears; while Mr. Parnell, who had walked into the House during Mr. Forster's speech, in his peculiarly quiet, dry, precise manner, denied that he had been released upon any conditions whatever, and claimed for himself and his friends full liberty to deal as they thought fit with any proposal the Ministry might make. It is long since a scene so dramatic has been witnessed in our Parliament—not only because the leaders were visibly struggling to conceal their excitement, nor because the passion of the rank and file of the Tory party vented itself in interruptions which the Prime Minister was repeatedly forced to check, but because every one felt what great issues and results lay behind this sudden alteration of the attitude of parties. The Parnellites, who had for the last few weeks been joined in a scarcely-concealed alliance with the Tory party, now turned fiercely upon them and protested their friendliness to the Government, declaring that now, at last, when Mr. Forster was away and the coercion policy abandoned, all would go well in Ireland. The advanced Liberals, irritated by Mr. Forster's speech, seemed half inclined to agree with them.

But what the Government gained in one direction it was evidently likely to lose in another. No one could mistake the cloud that had settled down on the faces of what is called the Whig section of the Ministerialists, the "moderate men," the landholders, or moneyed people, who accepted with regret the Land Act of last session, and think that the rights of property are in danger. They had trusted Mr. Forster, they regretted his retirement, and held, with him, that the release of the suspects was an unworthy concession to disorder and sedition. They disapproved of any communications, anything like a negotiation, between the Ministry and the suspects. Next day their discontent took shape in the formation of what, in our political slang, are called "caves"—groups who disapprove the conduct of the Ministry, and are inclined to withdraw their support from it. Besides one from the Tory side, several Liberals gave notice of motions calling on the Government to disclose at once their measures for strengthening the law in Ireland. It was reported that the Government, recognizing the strength of this feeling, was about to soothe it by declarations to be made in the debate which the Opposition had demanded for Monday. But before Monday came, everything was changed by news which shook England as nothing has shaken it within the memory of living men—the news of the murder of the new Chief Secretary and the Under Secretary for Ireland, on the very day when the former and Lord Spencer had landed in Dublin amidst the acclamations of the people. Y.

THEIR EFFECT ON PUBLIC FEELING.

LONDON, May 13.

SUNDAY, May 6, was a day the like of which has not been known in England this century or last. We have long been so accustomed to conduct our political disputes in a peaceable way, never putting people to death, seldom even trying them for treason or sedition, wholly unused to the sight of arms and blood, thinking of all such things as lying far back in the past, that to hear of two high officials—one of them the brother of the nobleman second in command in the Liberal party—being murdered by political assassins on a summer's evening, in a public park, under the very windows of the Viceroy's residence, seemed no more credible than if we had been told that the chiefs of the Opposition had lost their heads on Tower Hill. Although policemen have for some months past watched the houses of the Prime Minister and Irish Secretary, we never could bring ourselves to think

them seriously in danger. This terrible news, therefore, was at first received with incredulity. It was not till it came with something of circumstance that its truth was admitted. It reached London on Saturday night, about 10 o'clock, but was not generally known in England till Sunday forenoon. Generally, no news, however important, makes its way on a Sunday; for few people out of London, and not many there, read a Sunday newspaper. But this was so startling that every one who heard it made haste to spread it. Most people heard it leaving church at half-past 12 o'clock; by 2 every one in the towns was apprised, and till evening the streets were in most towns full of people, moving hither and thither, thronging round the newspaper offices to inquire if anything more were known, stopping to form groups to speculate on the manner of the deed (which at first was not known) and the chances of seizing the murderers.

The first feeling was one of amazement and horror; next came anger, which increased as the horrible circumstances of the attack became known. Many people feared a general outburst of fury against Ireland and the Irish. Fortunately, we escaped this; and we escaped it not only because the English are a sensible people, capable of self-control, but also because it was plain to any one who thought about the matter that the crime must have been committed in the hope and with the wish of destroying any reviving friendliness and good feeling between the two countries, of turning the Government back from their policy of conciliation, and of thereby driving the mass of the people more and more into the arms of the desperate faction by which the murder was perpetrated. This was quickly felt; it was expressed by most of the leading organs of liberal opinion through England and Scotland; it was stated with an earnestness no one could doubt by Mr. Parnell, Mr. Dillon, and Mr. Davitt in the manifesto which they issued to the Irish nation. One may say, on the whole, that the English people bore the shock with a calmness and firmness worthy of their history and their freedom. But there were also in some quarters furious cries raised for general and reckless vengeance, for martial law, the proclamation of a state of siege in Dublin, and other such desperate and useless remedies. One prominent organ went so far as to make the assassination the ground for a political attack on the Government, and many Conservative papers held that it justified Mr. Forster's view of the situation, though they forgot that the Coercion Act was still in force, and that the crime, so far from being done in the interest of the three members who had just been released against Mr. Forster's advice, was obviously the greatest misfortune that could have befallen them and that more moderate section of the Nationalist party to which they belong. Nothing did more to allay the passion which the first news had excited than the calm and pathetic attitude of the nearest relatives of the murdered Chief Secretary. They were the first to entreat that the crime should not be charged on the Irish people as a whole, and to express the hope that England would not gratify the assassins by letting herself be turned from the path of sympathy and conciliation. A letter, written by the widow of Lord Frederick (a daughter of the late Lord Lyttleton, and a niece of Mrs. Gladstone), which Lord Spencer, the new Lord Lieutenant, read to a meeting at Dublin, produced a profound impression, and deserves, for its simple dignity and noble self-forgetfulness, to go down to posterity with the narrative of these strange and terrible events.

Of Lord Frederick Cavendish himself, whose tragic end would give him a place in history, even had his abilities been far inferior to what

they were, a few words must be said. He was a retiring and modest man, whose apparent diffidence of his own powers made people rate him below his real value. He was not a fluent speaker, and in the place he filled was seldom required to make set speeches, so that the world at large, and even the House of Commons, knew him but slightly. Every one who saw something of him in society, or had to do business with him, could not but like him, there was something so genuine and upright in his character—so much simplicity, so much kindness, such an evident desire to do what was right irrespective of any personal interests. He was very careful and thorough as an official, understanding his work perfectly, and discharging it with steady, unobtrusive zeal. But the quality which chiefly recommended him for the difficult post of Irish Secretary was the singular fairness of his judgment. With him it was a moral as well as an intellectual quality, and being united with great candor and self-forgetfulness, it would have enabled him to learn how things really stood in Ireland, and to keep from falling into the hands of any one set of advisers, while at the same time his sterling goodness of heart would have made itself appreciated by those who came in contact with him. It is not, therefore, merely that compassion and sorrow which now naturally gather round him that have made men feel how much was lost in his death, but a recognition of the presence in him of qualities which would have been more helpful in the actual administration of the country than eloquence or skill in debate.

His funeral in the churchyard of Edensor, a tiny village close to Chatsworth, in Derbyshire, the famous country seat of his father, the Duke of Devonshire, was the most remarkable England has seen since the burial of the Princess Charlotte. The valley in which Chatsworth stands is one of the loveliest in England, and on this bright May day all the trees were in fresh and tender green, and a spring sun was bathing the hillsides in the richest and softest light. Three hundred members of the House of Commons, with some peers and the officials of the Treasury, had come down from London, 140 miles, by a special train, which was greeted with silent marks of respect and sympathy at every station which it passed, the people crowding the platforms and even climbing on the bridges to watch it sweep past. In Chatsworth Park a prodigious crowd of people—some estimated the number at 50,000—had gathered from the towns of Lancashire and Yorkshire, and lined the path which the funeral procession took from Chatsworth House to the church, all standing bareheaded and perfectly silent. Scarcely a policeman was to be seen, for no such gathering had been expected; but the most perfect order and decorum reigned. It was a real national mourning for men who had fallen in the service of their country just as truly as if they had been defending its shores against an invader. The very depth and universality of the feeling displayed seemed to sober men's minds, and since that day less violent language has been heard, and people have come to feel that the Irish question must be dealt with in a cool and judicial way. The sympathy shown in America has been gratefully received, and though there have been discordant manifestations in some parts of Ireland, the great mass of the Irish people seems to be filled with indignation and shame. No words have been used there similar to those which we have been astonished to read reported from the Irish meeting in New York, nor is this owing merely to the fact that men might be afraid to express their true sentiments too openly on this side the ocean. The extreme section of the Nationalist party, the section which

advocates assassination, and, as we now learn, uses it, is believed to be extremely small in Ireland, and might almost be disregarded if it were not encouraged and supported from abroad.

The very night of Lord F. Cavendish's funeral saw the recommencement of our party strife here; but this, with the singular scenes of the present week, is a subject too long for the present letter.

Y.

THE CORRESPONDENCE OF GEORGE SAND.

PARIS, May 12, 1882.

THE first volume of the 'Correspondence of George Sand,' the only one which has yet appeared,* extends from 1812 to 1836. It enters at once *in medias res*; there is not a word of introduction, not a biographical notice, not even an indication of the name of the person who has undertaken the work of collecting and publishing the letters. With the French public, to be sure, George Sand needs no introduction. She has lived before our eyes, so to speak; she has lived in her works, as her novels are the mirror of her changing passions and emotions. What a worker she was! The collection of her works contains no less than 105 volumes; and all these 105 volumes were written, in one sense, with her blood—they are all full of her emotions, of her hopes, of her fancies, of her troubles.

The 'Correspondance' begins in 1812, when Mlle. Aurore Dupin was eight years old. The letters are written at Nohant, which is near La Châtre; it was then the estate of Madame Dupin de Francueil, and it became afterward the favorite sojourn of Madame Sand. Mlle. Dupin was married very young to M. François Casimir Dudevant, and she had her first child, Maurice, in 1823; her eldest sister was married to a M. Cazamajou. In 1825 she made a journey to the Pyrenees. Her love of nature was there well satisfied: "Such is my enthusiasm over the Pyrenees that I shall think for the rest of my life of mountain torrents, grottos, precipices." She makes long descriptions for her mother, in which you can already find the writer. We find also her character already developed in many letters. For example, speaking of a friend who led a bad life: "— will always be dear to me, however unfortunate he may become. He is already unfortunate, and the more so he becomes, the less interest he will inspire—such is the rule of society. As for myself, I shall repair his misfortunes as far as in me lies. He will find me when others turn their back on him; and, even if he sank as low as his brother, I should still love him from compassion, after having ceased to love him from esteem." This is the true George Sand already—a heart open to compassion, capable of great faults, but, on the whole, noble and generous. "If I were a man," said she, "I would, having the will to serve him, answer for him; but, being a woman, what I can get from him is nullified by the difference of sex, of position—by a thousand things which thwart my intentions." This letter certainly shows an active sort of charity. Madame Sand was, in truth, always a good and devoted friend; she sinned more against herself than against others.

The society of La Châtre, where Madame Sand spent the winter, was very exclusive. "You know," she writes to a friend, "that there are here seven or eight sets which never mix together. You know, also, that Périgny and myself, who make a pretence of being philosophers, invite everybody. I do not receive this year; but he has begun. The first evening passed off tolerably well, except that the most *huppées* [the proudest] were stupefied at seeing themselves amalgamated with what they call the *canaille*,

* 'George Sand. Correspondance, 1812-1876.' Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.

though this *canaille* is as good as they. The music-master and his wife, who is very nice, caused a great indignation, and the good souls said that Périgny was polite to the musician in order to economize five francs for his *soirée*." She goes on to say that at the next *soirée* nobody came except herself and the music-master. Such a society was a little too narrow for a person like Madame Sand.

She had a daughter, whom she named Solange; and her son Maurice, whom she educated herself at first, was coming to the age when he must have a tutor. She chose M. Jules Boucoiran, who remained ever afterward an intimate friend of the family. Boucoiran was still a very young man; and Madame Sand's letters to him, when she was away from Nohant, are very interesting, full of good sense, of good advice, and of affection. She treated him like a mother, and in fact she always was motherly toward all men, even toward those who afterward became her lovers.

The Revolution of 1830 caused a great agitation at Nohant, for Madame Sand had relations in Paris. She had an uncle who was inspector of the King's household. This uncle was married, and had a daughter. So far, she had taken no interest whatever in politics; she was essentially domestic, though she was not provincial; she had friends, and was devoted to them. She was afraid at first of the Revolution of 1830; her pacific *pays* was agitated: there were troubles at Bourges, at Issoudun, even at La Châtre. Still she writes to her mother: "I am not disposed to be afraid of the dark future which is painted for us. Fear magnifies everything; and these sanguinary men are, seen from near, half the time mere drunkards, who become merry with wine, and who will kill nobody. They make much noise and do little harm; still, I am glad you are not in Paris."

She took more interest in what was then called the Romantic movement, and she wrote "Romantic" epistles to her friends, ridiculing the style of the new school. In September, 1830, there came a great crisis in her life. Up to that date we see no allusion in her letters to any domestic differences with M. Dudevant, her husband; but in a letter to M. Jules Boucoiran, of the 3d of December, 1830, we learn that in looking in her husband's secretary she found a package to her address. There was written on it: "Open only after my death." "I had not," said she, "the patience to wait till I should be a widow. With a health like mine, I cannot hope to survive anybody. Besides, I imagined my husband dead, and I was curious to know what he thought of me during his lifetime. The package being addressed to me, I had the right to open it without indiscretion." This is very strange reasoning, and Madame Sand says more than she intends when she makes such a confession. Her curiosity was rewarded. "Good God!" says she, "what a will! Maledictions, and that was all. He had concentrated there all his ill humor, all his anger against me, all his reflections on my *perceiverty*, all his sentiments of contempt for my character." She drew her conclusions rapidly: she said to herself that it was needless for her to live with a man who had for her neither esteem nor confidence. She took her decision "irrevocably." She said to her husband: "I want a pension. I will go to Paris; my children will remain at Nohant." "This," she adds, "about the children was a feint. I have not the slightest idea of abandoning my children." She proposed to live six months of the year in Paris and six months at Nohant. "Hitherto he has treated me as if I were odious to him. Now that I am sure of it, I am going away." But she wished to return whenever it

suit her and whenever the children required it. She implored Boucoiran to leave Paris, where he had a good place, to return to Nohant and take care of her little Maurice.

She arrived in Paris in January, 1831. She had the consolation of knowing that the good Boucoiran had returned to Nohant, and was acting there the part of a mother. She launched herself at once on the stormy sea of literature. She was not rich, she wanted more money, and she had something in her which could not be controlled. This is the time when the acquaintance of Madame Dudevant with Jules Sandeau began. Sandeau was younger than she. They wrote together, Sandeau signing the articles. She soon adopted his name, Sand, as she did not wish to write anything under the name of her husband. The letters to Boucoiran are full of her projects, of her hopes, of her disappointments. "I am resolved to follow the literary career. Though I am often disgusted, though days of laziness and of fatigue interrupt my work, I feel that my existence is now fixed: I have a task; I have a passion." She wrote for the *Revue de Paris*, for the *Mode*, for the *Artiste*, for *Figaro*. "If you knew what it is! But one is paid seven francs the column; and with that one eats, drinks, and even goes to the play." She had truly the soul of an artist, of a Bohemian: she amused herself everywhere. She had no expensive tastes; she simplified herself, as the Russians say. In April, 1831, she made a visit to Nohant, and she lived there for about two months; then she returned to Paris. We see her now more and more interested in politics; she saw chiefly men, and men who had their fortunes to make, and who were in the Opposition. Her elastic nature took the bent of her *entourage*. There was also in her a born rebel; she hated instinctively all social laws and all control.

In September, 1831, we find Madame Sand again at Nohant, where she took the part of a preceptor for the children, and continued to write novels. She returned to Paris in April, 1832, taking her daughter Solange with her. 'Indiana' appeared in July, 1832. "The success of 'Indiana' frightens me. Until now I had thought my work of no consequence and not deserving any attention. Fate has ordered otherwise; I must now justify the unmerited admiration of which I am the object. This disgusts me with my career; it seems to me that I shall have no more pleasure in writing." The success of 'Indiana' was indeed extraordinary. This novel is full of the warmest descriptions of passion. The glorification of love—of material as well as ideal love—had never been so candidly made. The style was magnificent, rich, abundant; it had something of the best style of Rousseau. The philosophy of 'Indiana' was the philosophy of self-indulgence: love justifies itself, and it ought not to be controlled. Madame Sand professed the "droit à l'amour" as the Socialists afterward professed the "droit au travail."

After 'Indiana' she began 'Valentine,' which is in the same mood. She worked with a sort of curious ardor mixed with disgust. "I have to put all my heart and all my energy on sheets of paper. My soul is at the printer's, my faculties are in the proof-reader's hands. Dreadful life! the days when I live in this way I cannot live for myself. It is perhaps my good fortune; for, abandoned to myself, I should live too much. In two days I shall finish 'Valentine,' or I shall be dead." She sold 'Valentine' for four thousand francs. The *Revue des Deux Mondes* bought it. "I have sold myself to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for a yearly rent of four thousand francs—thirty-two pages of writing every six weeks." This arrangement made her a slave, but it gave her material independence. It was possible in 1832 for a woman to live in Paris on

four thousand francs a year. With all her defects, Madame Sand was proud, and determined to earn her own living. She was now famous. 'Valentine' placed her at once at the front of the Romantic school.

Correspondence.

THE SHIRT AND FORK QUESTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have a friend who is in the habit of saying that when the *Nation* has exhausted every other form of invective it ends by accusing a man of having no sense of humor. Does not Mr. Matthew Arnold call for this last resort by way of castigation when he takes the *Nation's* statement, that not one man in a hundred thousand in America changes his shirt more than once a week or eats with a fork, as a piece of statistical information?

BALTIMORE, May 24, 1882.

[We think he does. The statement was a hyperbolic illustration, and as applicable to England as America. But we have all along been ready to make large concessions in the way of increasing the proportion of men who change their shirts more than once a week—to make them one in a thousand for instance—in answer to respectful remonstrance from any quarter.—ED. NATION.]

MR. ISAAC L. RICE ON RICARDO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I cannot refrain from expressing my astonishment at the extended and respectful consideration which the *Nation* has thought fit to bestow on Mr. Isaac L. Rice's childishly ridiculous attack upon Ricardo's doctrine of rent, in the June number of the *North American Review*. Certainly he has been handled with a very un-*Nation*-like gentleness; and if the matter in question were a personal or unimportant one, this would make little difference. But I feel that a journal of the weight and standing of the *Nation* does much harm in admitting by implication that such an argument as Mr. Rice's has anything in it which deserves to be seriously considered; just as a merely respectable weekly would do harm among the masses if it were quietly and respectfully to examine the arguments brought forward by one of the periodical disbelievers in the rotundity of the earth.

I do not wish to commit the very error I have just been deprecating, but I think it will not be amiss to quote one passage—out of very many—which may serve to measure Mr. Rice's clearness of vision in the field of political economy:

"But Ricardo himself has a confused notion of his own fundamental proposition. After repeatedly calling attention to the fact that, when he speaks of rent, he invariably speaks of what is paid to the landlord for the use of the original and indestructible powers of the soil, and after declaring emphatically that what is paid for the use of the capital which has been employed in ameliorating the quality of the land is not rent, he flies in the face of all this by asserting, in a note to chapter xviii. of his work, that as for the capital which has been expended in the 'improvement of a farm' and is 'inseparably amalgamated with the land, and tends to increase its productive powers, the remuneration paid to the landlord for its use is strictly of the nature of rent, and is subject to all the laws of rent.' By what magic this capital is converted into an original and indestructible power of the soil Ricardo fails to explain."

Of course Ricardo fails to explain; rightly judging that any one who could not perceive, by his own unaided powers, that what has been

"inseparably amalgamated with the land" thereafter affects landlord and tenant in precisely the same manner as if it had pertained to the land from the beginning of the world, would hardly be fitted to profit by an explanation.

Yours, very respectfully, X.
BALTIMORE, May 28, 1882.

[Our correspondent will, we trust, bear in mind that the periodical in which Mr. Rice's article appeared is not an obscure weekly newspaper whose opinions are *prima facie* to be rated as frivolous and inconsequential. Mr. Rice's article in the columns of a Greenback-Labor organ would call for different treatment from that accorded to the same article appearing in the pages of the *North American Review*.—ED. NATION.]

MR. LOWELL AND THE AMERICAN SUSPECTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the controversy over the proposed recall of Mr. Lowell, some of the newspapers have displayed the most unpardonable carelessness in putting forward declarations of alleged principles of international law, and statements of fact, which the most cursory examination will show to be absolutely without foundation. A country weekly, without the resources of a large library at its command, may perhaps be pardoned for vague generalizations upon this subject for want of the means of verifying or correcting its assertions. But that a representative of the metropolitan press should be found laying down as general principles statements which an examination of the records of our State Department and the authorities on international law show to be absurd, is inexcusable.

The *World*, for example, in the citations by which it pretends to support the allegation that Mr. Lowell has proved himself "ludicrously ignorant of the first principles of public law," displays itself an ignorance which is not only ludicrous, but highly culpable in a paper which prates, as the *World* does, with an air of authority, upon diplomatic practice and the law of nations. Take, for instance, the assertion that Mr. Lowell, by offering to pay the return expenses of an imprisoned "suspect," on his acceptance of a release upon condition of his returning to the United States, was guilty of an attempt to bribe an American citizen to forego certain of his rights. In point of fact, the proposed settlement was in accordance with repeated diplomatic practice. When Bergen and Ryan were arrested in Ireland in 1848, their release was finally accepted on condition of their leaving Ireland. In the famous Koszta dispute with Austria in 1853, which Mr. Cox, of New York, cites as "a valuable precedent and brilliant illustration" of what he calls "the staunch diplomacy of the past," the basis of compromise was an agreement that Koszta should be shipped to the United States, Austria reserving the right to proceed against him in event of his return. We insisted upon the right of conditional release only, in 1863, when Francis Carroll, a British subject confined on suspicion of complicity with Rebel plots, was released only on his agreement to leave the United States, or give bonds for his conduct. Finally, Mr. Seward himself suggested this course in his instructions to Mr. Adams, in 1866, when he wrote:

"You will be expected to suggest to Lord Clarendon the expediency of the exercise of clemency to the extent, at least, of releasing all of the American citizens, native or naturalized, who are in confinement, upon the condition of their returning to the United States. . . . While such a proceeding on the part of the

British Government would seem to be an entirely safe one, it cannot be doubted that it would have a tranquillizing effect here."

If the *World* will take the trouble to examine our diplomatic correspondence during the years when questions of disputed nationality have arisen between the United States and other countries, it will find that it has been our custom to pay the expenses home of such prisoners, when released upon condition of their returning to the United States, and when they did not themselves have the means to pay. (Dip. Cor. 1868. Mr. Adams to Mr. Seward, April 22, 1868.) It should be remarked, by the way, that Mr. Lowell's offer of £40 to such of the "suspects" as might accept a release on these terms was made *after* he had received instructions from the Secretary of State, "if requisite, to draw on the Department of State for \$200 per man for all such American citizens as might be released and might need the means of reaching home." (Mr. Frelinghuysen to President Arthur, May 22, 1882.)

A great outcry has been made because of the "monstrous notion upon which Mr. Lowell owns to having acted as a minister, that an adopted citizen of the United States cannot 'prolong' his residence in the land of his birth 'without an extinction of his acquired and a renewal of his original allegiance.'" What Mr. Lowell really said, in his despatch to Secretary Frelinghuysen, May 4, 1882, was this:

"The United States have from the first justly insisted on and have finally established the principle of the right of expatriation; but when a man has completed the process of expatriating himself and returns to the land of his birth, I should be glad to be instructed how far his residence there may be prolonged without an extinction of the acquired and a revival of the original allegiance."

The language used by Mr. Lowell in this request for instructions shows plainly enough his familiarity with that portion of the diplomatic history of our Government bearing upon the point toward which his query is directed, and of which, it is to be inferred, his assailants are entirely ignorant. After the discussion that followed the Fenian arrests of 1866-7, and the submission of the report of the Banks Committee to the House of Representatives in 1869, we entered into treaty stipulations with various powers relating to questions of nationality. Many of these treaties, notably those with the North German Union (1868), Mexico (1871), and Norway and Sweden (1869), included clauses aimed at just such a state of facts as that covered by Mr. Lowell's inquiry, in which it was agreed that a renewal of residence by the naturalized person in the mother country without the intention of returning should work a renunciation of the acquired and a renewal of the native allegiance; and that two years' such residence should be accepted as presumptive evidence of the intent to abandon the acquired naturalization. Such a contingency, moreover, was suggested to our Government, and opinions given upon it, by the members of General Grant's Cabinet in 1873. The President submitted to the principal officers of each of the executive departments, in that year, a series of questions relating to the proper attitude to be assumed by the Government toward such persons as might claim its protection in a foreign country as citizens of the United States. One of those questions read as follows:

"IV. Ought the Government to hold itself bound to extend its protection, and consequently exert its military and naval power for such protection, in favor of persons who have left its territories and who reside abroad without an apparent intent to return to them, and who do not contribute to its support?"

To this the Secretary of War replied:

"Such a residence abroad, accompanied by no avowed, known, or apparent intent to re-

turn, would constitute a *prima facie* case of expatriation which would justify the Government in withholding its protection until explained away and overcome by counter satisfactory testimony." (Opinions relating to Expatriation, etc., p. 40. Government Printing Office, Washington, 1873.)

The answer of the Attorney-General, concurred in by the Postmaster-General, was to the same effect, and the gist of the opinions delivered by the rest of the Cabinet was to the effect that acts on the part of the naturalized citizen, sojourning in a foreign land, inconsistent with the idea of a return to the United States, freed this country from the obligation of protection.

Many other facts and official declarations of such a character as ought to influence diplomatic conduct might be cited in support of Mr. Lowell's position on these two points at least. But I think I need not trespass further upon your space and your good nature by the offer of cumulative evidence to prove the inaccuracy, to use no harsher term, of the statements alluded to above. I trust I shall not seem impertinent when I venture to suggest that the *World*, the *Sun*, and perhaps the *Herald*, too, would do well to consult the following, by way of preparation, before pursuing this discussion further: Opinions relating to Expatriation, etc., Washington, 1873; United States Diplomatic Correspondence for 1861, '63, '65, '66, '67, and 1868; and United States Consular Regulations, sections 109, 110, 111.

GEORGE WALTON GREEN.

NEW YORK, May 29, 1882.

Notes.

PORTER & COATES, Philadelphia, will print an American edition of 'Three in Norway, by Two of Them,' an illustrated volume.

A. Williams & Co., Boston, have in press a large pamphlet, elegantly printed, embodying the proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society with reference to the deaths of Longfellow and Emerson. Photographic portraits of both these eminent men will accompany it, and the edition will be small.

Ginn & Heath, Boston, publish immediately a third edition of "The True Key to Ancient Cosmology and Mythical Geography," a thin pamphlet, by President W. F. Warren, of the Boston University.

'Harper's Handbook for Travellers in Egypt and the East' has at last burst the bounds of a single volume, and is now much more commodiously distributed in three, of which the first and third are well grouped, geographically and for purposes of travel; the second containing, besides Switzerland and the Tyrol, Russia, Spain, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, or the less-visited parts of Europe. The already abundant supply of maps and plans has been enlarged, and the customary annual revision made. Though space has been left for additions, it is less easy to make these than corrections in the stereotyped plates. To this circumstance, perhaps, we owe (to choose a trifling example) the failure to insert in the text any mention of the Alexandrian obelisk on the Thames Embankment, or even to indicate its location on the map. But this work, being now in its twenty-first year, has come of age, and is exempted from minute research for flaws. A peculiarity of it is its recommendation, not only of hotels, but of tradesmen—a delicate service, but a real one when the traveller's interest and not the tradesman's is consulted.

From the Messrs. Appleton we have the latest volume of their 'Annual Cyclopaedia,' that for 1881. It can hardly be necessary to characterize afresh this convenient and, we might say, indispensable summary. All the States of the Union and all the leading countries of the globe

have articles devoted to their yearly progress, and on this side the *Cyclopædia* becomes a current gazetteer. Then there are biographical notices consequent on sudden eminence, such as Gambetta's short-lived Premiership, or on death, as in the case of President Garfield. Obituaries supplement this department. Astronomy, Chemistry, Engineering, Physiology, etc., group the salient discoveries and achievements under each head. The religious denominations have their articles, and under Presbyterians one may read of the persecution of Professor Robertson Smith. Literature, American and foreign, is reviewed. The debates of Congress are digested, and certain public documents printed in full. The Bimetallic Conference; the Atlanta and Paris (Electrical) Expositions; the London Medical Congress; the New Testament Revision; the Panama Canal; the Electoral Count; Guiteau's Trial, with articles on Presidential Inability and Disability, and on Insanity as a Defence for Crime, are specimens of the topics which represent the past year in this chronicle. Besides portraits of President Arthur, Mr. Blaine, and Gambetta, there are numerous colored maps, illustrating the population statistics of the late Census.

In compliance with a request from the collectors' committee of the Longfellow Memorial Association, the Publisher of the *Nation* will receive, and transmit to the Treasurer, any dollar subscriptions that may be forwarded to him for that purpose.

J. C. Morison & Co., 86 South Street, send us a tasteful souvenir of the ill-fated *Jeannette*. A view of the ship itself, apparently from a water-color drawing, is surrounded by eight photographic portraits of officers and other members of the expedition, the whole reproduced by the artotype process.

In the *Bibliographer* for May (J. W. Bouton), Dr. W. A. Greenhill makes a contribution to the bibliography of Browne's 'Religio Medici'—MSS. and printed books. He feels doubtful if he has named all the American editions; and in fact, both here and in his charming edition of the work published by Macmillan in 1881, there is no allusion to Roberts Bros.' (Boston) edition of 1878.

The Mercantile Library of Peoria, Illinois, having been consolidated with the Public Library of that place, the latter now reckons some 20,000 volumes, and, as a sign of new life, has begun the publication of a monthly bulletin called the *Library News*. Its bibliographical portion shows the influence of the discussions and consensus of the body of librarians of this country since they began to have an organization and a mouthpiece.

Some of our readers may not need to be reminded of the existence and worth of the bi-monthly *Revue Historique* (Paris: Germer Baillière et Cie.), one of the most learned, candid, and serious historical journals published anywhere. Besides its original essays and elaborate book reviews, and its *bulletins* for the several countries, a singularly valuable department is the summary of the (historical) contents of periodicals. Here we are not put off with a barren list of subject and author, but to each article is appended in parenthesis a brief characterization—sometimes a word, like "bon," "important," "intéressant," sometimes a sentence of several lines by way of criticism or of special indication. The *Revue* is now in its 19th volume.

Parts 28-31 of Ebers's 'Egypt,' translated by Clara Bell, complete the two volumes of this beautiful and delightful work, the offspring of profound learning and of exceptional literary gifts; popular in its style, yet too costly in its manufacture for the many. The magnificent illustrations are unsold to the end. Dr. Samuel Birch furnishes an introduction to the trans-

lation, essaying a rapid sketch of Egyptian history and of the revival of Egyptology as a result of the French conquest. Prof. Ebers himself adds a preface to the second volume, referring to the recent political transformations, and saying what good word he can for Ismail Pasha, and speaking hopefully of the present Khedive. Indexes, title-pages, etc., are furnished with these last instalments.

Koolman's slow-moving 'Wörterbuch der Ostfriesischen Sprache' (Norden: Braams) arrives, with its fourteenth and fifteenth parts and 730th page, at the word *pirer*. A large proportion of the words in these numbers have intimate relations with English forms, and, as usual, the etymologies are suggestive even when frankly hypothetical. That of *paradis* (paradise) may be compared with Skeat's in his new 'Etymological Dictionary,' and in his correction in the *Academy* some three months ago. The proverbial and colloquial illustrations are again numerous and often of a quaint humor. The following rule of conduct hardly needs a gloss for English readers: "Beter junk lōpen un old faren, as junk faren un old lōpen."

Die Wespen, one of the best comic papers of North Germany, edited by Julius Stettenheim, now appears as a weekly supplement to the Berliner *Boersen-Courier*.

—The Palmer family is to meet again at Stonington this summer. Last year the gathering was almost impromptu; now there is a Palmer Reunion Association, with a full list of officers, including a Treasurer, a Chaplain, and a Grand Marshal. The membership is open to any respectable descendant, "paternal or maternal," of the Palmer lineage, and there is nothing in the constitution to prevent the collateral descendants, of either sex, from being chosen to direct the Association; but the present Board is wholly male and Palmer. The permanence of the spirit of reunion is greatly favored by the charms of Stonington and its vicinity as a seaside resort. The Western branches, who naturally seek the salt water in the heat of summer, will doubtless time their flight to Newport, Westerly, Watch Hill, or New London, so as to have a share in the Palmer hand-shaking and picnicking. Moreover, the proceedings of last year have all been set down in a book of some 300 pages (Jamaica, L. I., N. Y.: Noyes F. Palmer), where also are to be found artotype illustrations of places and persons—a veritable portrait-gallery—brief biographies, much genealogical information, and even a necrology of Palmers deceased since the first meeting. There is an "alphabetical arrangement of places where some of the descendants of Walter Palmer have lived," and a list of "celebrated Palmers," classified by occupation—as, General Grant among the Army officers, Senator David Davis among the judges, General John M. Palmer and Senator Pendleton among State governors; Professor D. C. Eaton, the sculptor Palmer, the maker of Palmer's artificial limbs, the inventor of the Gatling gun, ex-Speaker Elisha Grow—the wealthy, the long-lived, the large-family Palmers (twelve children was the example of the founder, Walter Palmer), and so forth. "Grandmother Palmer" passed away in January. She was the ultimate cause of the reunion, though her own habits were so far unsocial or ungoddish that "during the period of a quarter of a century she left her house to visit her neighbors but two or three times." Her grandson doubts "if she beheld a locomotive more than two or three times, though bearing the whistle daily." She was brought up in the Baptist faith. "Near my birthplace," wrote this old lady, "were high ledges of huge rocks, which mother said were rent asunder when Christ was crucified, which in our infancy

[circa 1800] created no little interest for the great God of Heaven and Earth." There is much else that is curious and instructive in this volume.

—After the death of Freiligrath, six years ago, it seemed probable that the interesting library of Germany's "poet of democracy" would share the usual fate of dispersion by auction, and in 1878 a catalogue was printed preparatory to a sale. Mr. J. M. Sears, of Boston, arranged for the purchase of the entire collection, and soon after its arrival in this country entrusted the making of a suitable catalogue to the care of Mr. J. L. Whitney. Mr. Whitney has just completed his task, and the result is an unusually attractive specimen of this sort of bibliography ('Catalogue of the Library of J. Montgomerie Sears, including the poetical library of Ferdinand Freiligrath.' Cambridge: John Wilson & Son, pp. vi., 330, 4to). Its alphabetical arrangement by authors, a clear typography, and hand-made paper set off its contents very handsomely. Freiligrath was no bibliomaniac, and consequently his library was not composed entirely or mainly of works of inestimable rarity—in the dealers' sense; indeed, his vicissitudes of fortune would hardly have permitted such indulgence. But he had a certain literary second-sight, which enabled him to foresee the future value of some books, perhaps lightly esteemed at the time. As a consequence, though always remaining a poor man, as book-buyers go, he gradually gathered about him an unusually valuable and desirable collection. Its chief strength lies in the works of German and English authors of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, particularly in the department of poetry. The catalogue gives the titles of one hundred and twenty-seven different editions of Goethe and Schiller, the difficulty of duplicating which any one acquainted with these matters can appreciate. While drudging at his clerk's desk in London, Freiligrath learned to know the poetry of Burns, and the result was not only some of his best efforts at translation, but a precious collection of the early editions of that poet's works. A look through the titles shows how fortunate he was in finding many rarities of Milton, Byron, Shelley, and some other poets. These shrewd purchases, and doubtless gifts from generous friends, besides carefully-preserved presentation copies from various sources, as far back as 1841 numbered fifteen hundred, and at the time of his death reached a total of nearly five thousand volumes—as a whole, an exceptionally fine gathering of literature for a man placed as Freiligrath was, and considering the intrinsic merit which his delicacy as a poet seemed to demand in a book. In this respect the absence of what are conveniently classified in the phraseology of catalogues as "Facetiae" is very noticeable. These treasures he carried with him, wherever he chanced to be driven by the political agitations of his times. A genuine book-lover, Freiligrath could hardly have wished for a happier destiny for his cherished volumes than their present appropriate resting-place in this country, to which, it will be remembered, he had serious hopes of emigrating when he was recalled by the Revolution of 1848.

—The same refinement of taste that guided him in his choice of books is shown in the picture of Freiligrath's life and friendships presented in Wilhelm Büchner's two volumes ('Ferdinand Freiligrath. Ein Dichterleben in Briefen.' Lehr: M. Schauenburg. 1882. 2 vols. 8vo). The poet in his younger days always found the house of the Büchner family in Darmstadt an hospitable one, and there began an intimacy of thirty years' duration. Hence the work intrusted to him by Freiligrath's widow of giving order and consistency to the correspondence, and of making it

the groundwork of a biography, would seem to have devolved fitly upon Herr Büchner. He has, however, been somewhat unfortunate in his execution of this task, and shows a lack of good literary judgment in giving to his natural enthusiasm for the subject a certain adulatory effect, and in retaining too much of the unimportant correspondence—a common enough defect in biographies of this kind. But the letters themselves, of course, make the chief interest of the book, and the reader of them needs no assurance that letter-writing with Freiligrath was not an obligation which must be paid to a friend, in a half-hearted way, but a congenial labor, in which appear unreservedly all the moods of a poet's nature. Great as is the charm of looking into the domestic life of such a man, it is somewhat disappointing not to find more about his acquaintance with his contemporaries in literature, in particular during his long sojourns in London; but judging from the letters given, he passed these periods in much seclusion. This is strange, considering the friendliness with which he was regarded by the brightest literary men in England and America. It is a regrettable fact that, with the exception of some versions of single poems scattered through the *Athenæum* and through several of the English magazines, finally collected and edited by his daughter in 1869, Freiligrath's poetry has not been made known very extensively to English literature. The translator of some of our best poetry, he deserves to be judged in the language of the land of his refuge, as he calls England, by his lyrics, thought by one critic (Justin McCarthy) to be the most picturesque poetry of our age; and also by his stirring patriotic verses, on account of which he narrowly escaped imprisonment. Goethe's fear that the politician may absorb the poet was not confirmed in Freiligrath's case, for he continued his literary pursuits even after his honorable retirement at Cannstadt. Perhaps these new volumes, unsatisfactory as they are in some respects, may freshen the interest in his writings, as they can hardly fail to do in the manly record of his life.

—From a printed circular lately received, we learn that each year, as the result of a bequest to the Royal Netherlands Academy of Sciences (*Academia Regia Disciplinarum Neerlandica*) for that purpose, a prize of 200 florins is offered for the best Latin ode of not less than fifty lines. This ode must be original, and must be handed over or sent in, by the 1st of January, 1883, to Johan C. G. Boot, of the "*Ordo litterarius*" of this Academy, at Amsterdam, in Holland. A motto or sentiment is to be added to the ode, and repeated in a sealed envelope containing the name and residence of the writer. The contesting poems will be opened and read in the following March, and the one winning the prize and any others worthy of honorable mention will, with the consent of the authors, be printed, while the remainder will be destroyed (*comburentur*). The contest appears to be open to all comers. On the 15th of March last, at a meeting of the "*Ordo litterarius*," ten poems were offered in competition. Of these one was ruled out for its brevity, five others were mediocre, and a seventh not much better; the eighth was commended as an ode likely to please the man of literary tastes; the ninth was regarded as worthy of the prize, but was excelled by one other, from Freiburg, Switzerland, which accordingly took the palm.

—The language of ancient Etruria, the Etruscan or Tuscan, of which only exceedingly scanty remains exist—in inscriptions, mostly sepulchral, containing little more than names, and on a pair of ivory dice, on which the first six numerals can be read—has long challenged the ingenuity of philologists in regard to its classification. It has

been classed by different critics as Italic, Celtic, Germanic, Slavic; others, like Stickel in 1858 and Isaac Taylor in 1874, contesting its Aryan, or Indo-European, origin, have endeavored to establish its relationship to the Semitic or Turanian branches of the human speech. Corssen, in a great work, "*Die Sprache der Etrusker*" (2 vols., 1874-75), resumed the advocacy of the Italic theory. Another great authority on the subject, W. Deecke, combated the arguments by which it was supported in his "*Corssen und die Sprache der Etrusker*" (1875), and, like Ottfried Müller before him, recommended an attitude of reserve as to a final decision, though pointing out decided analogies to non-Aryan, especially Finnic, grammatical forms. The same general opinion he expressed in the article "Etruria" in the "*Encyclopædia Britannica*," of which he wrote the linguistic portion, in 1878, and in other writings. This negative view seemed so decisive that A. Kirchhof, for instance—in a note to his edition of Peschel's "*Völkerkunde*" (1881)—had no hesitation to declare Corssen's attempt a failure. Deecke himself, however, continuing his Etruscan researches with great zeal and diligence, gradually began wavering in his opinion. In 1879 he acknowledged the existence of great resemblance between Etruscan and Aryan words, for which he could not account. In 1880 he still considered all such words as borrowed from Aryan nations, and their frequency made him suspect the Etruscan to have been a mixed language, like the English or Neo-Persian. Since then he has made the last step in the new direction, decidedly declaring in the second number (1882) of the *Etruskische Forschungen und Studien*, which he edits jointly with Pauli, that the Etruscan was an idiom of the Italic branch of the Aryan languages, and thus returning to the old view of Passeri (1767), for which Corssen had elaborated a strictly scientific basis.

—A recent writer (Mr. H. Stonehewer Cooper) calls attention to the *copra* trade in the South Pacific as a source of considerable present and of greater prospective profit. Copra is now the chief export of the Fiji and of some other South Sea Islands. It is the prepared kernel of the coconut. The best is that which is dried whole before breaking the nut. A floored shed in which to stack the nuts is necessary; if they are allowed to touch the ground, they will germinate instead of growing. The tough husk which envelopes the shell must not be removed, else the *kakulu*, a sort of cockroach, makes its way through the one vulnerable point or eye in the shell and regales itself upon the water contained in it. It takes three months for the water to disappear. Meanwhile, the kernel has become as dry and tough as glue. The husk and the hard shell are now removed, and the hollow, shrunken shell of kernel is broken up into fragments to reduce its bulk. In this state it will keep forever. Copra is also cured by opening the fresh nuts and sun-drying the meat for three days, or more if the weather is cloudy. The article thus prepared is never, however, equal to that which is dried in the husk, the process being too rapid. Besides this, rain injures it, and if artificial heat is used in the drying, the copra always breeds animalcules which destroy it. Coconut oil, in much demand as a lubricator, is extracted from copra, and the refuse is worked up into cocoanut biscuits, or used to enrich cattle food. Copra is worth about £14 per ton in Fiji, and from £21 to £23 in London; the fibre is worth a little more, but at present most of it is thrown away. The trees bear all the year round in the South Pacific. Each tree will average 100 nuts per annum; about 6,000 nuts go to make a ton of copra, and they can be bought from the Fijian natives at 25s. per thousand. In

those islands some 10,000 acres of cocoanut trees are now under cultivation. During the year 1878 this group alone exported copra to the value of £122,194. The Samoan cocoanuts are even larger than those of Fiji, but the manufacture is not yet developed in Samoa.

—Another article of export, scarcely heard of in our market, is the *bêche-de-mer*, or large sea-slug, which is in great demand upon the tables of the rich in China, where it is known as *tripang*. It is chiefly found upon the beaches of the coral islands and reefs in the South Pacific, and is one of the most important articles of commerce obtained in these waters. The animal belongs to the class *holothurides*, and consists of an elongated sac, of a gristly consistence and incredibly elastic: "if slung by the middle across a pole, he will, by his own weight, stretch to several times his normal length." It has no eyes, but its triangular mouth is furnished with three teeth. "Its life seems to consist in taking water and sand in at one end, and squirting it out at the other." There are four kinds of *bêche-de-mer*—the gray, the black, the red, and the leopard. The gray is the most valuable; it grows to be eighteen inches long, and nearly as much in circumference. The black *bêche-de-mer* is sometimes thirty inches long, and as thick as a man's leg; it lives in the still lagoons, and can be dived for when the weather is too stormy to gather the other varieties upon the reef. The fishing is often done by companies of Polynesian men and women, brought under contract to the uninhabited islands where the *tripang* abounds. During the afternoon the morning's catch is split open and steamed in the Polynesian earth-oven, a pit heated with red-hot stones and covered with earth and leaves. This is done in an hour; then the fish are removed to a smoke-shed, and exposed to smoke from a fire of damp wood. In two or three days the gelatinous creature is completely dried. If it is cured thoroughly—and without this it will not bear long transportation—it will "rattle like a bag of chestnuts." *Bêche-de-mer* brings in the Chinese markets from £60 to £80, or even £100 per ton. Whole cargoes of it are sometimes lost on the way to China through defective curing. The business is one which offers, in Mr. Cooper's opinion, excellent profits to persons willing to venture a small capital in the South Pacific. The argument of his interesting book ("*Coral Lands*") is mainly to show the promises of European traffic with these islands.

—The performances of Wagner's "*Nibelung*" Tetralogy now taking place in London are of interest in more than one way. When this work, so difficult to understand and execute, was first produced at Bayreuth in 1876, few were sanguine enough to hope that it would, in the course of half a dozen years, establish itself in more than a dozen leading German cities, and even make a flying visit across the Channel. An attempt to produce it in London with local artists would have ended in complete failure, from an artistic point of view, because the vocalists assembled there mostly belong to the Italian school, and are unable to do justice to the Wagnerian dramatic style. But this style has been assiduously cultivated by the most prominent German vocalists during the last ten years, and the engagement of many of these, besides a German chorus and orchestra, in addition to some of the original Bayreuth scenery, insured a faithful interpretation of the work in London. Full reports of the first cycle are now at hand, and they are eminently satisfactory. Notwithstanding the high prices of admission, the house was full every evening and the audiences enthusiastic. As London, on account of its large foreign population, may be

really classed among the German capitals, it might be said that this favorable result was largely due to Teutonic influence. But the attitude of the press shows that the English themselves are prepared to appreciate to a considerable extent the grandeur of Wagner's latest works. With the exception of the *Times*, Wagner's ablest champion in England, the papers find more or less to object to in the Tetralogy; but these criticisms merely concern points of detail and general form, the numerous orchestral, dramatic, and scenic beauties in the work being willingly conceded. Only a few years ago the whole London press was most violently opposed to everything remotely suggestive of Wagner, and the present change in the general tone of criticism can only be compared to a similar change which took place in Berlin when the Tetralogy was first produced there. But it is always so with Wagner. People in their ignorance will continue to abuse him until they hear his works properly rendered, and then they usually try to compromise matters by admitting that his music is not so bad after all, but that he is nevertheless an odious, impertinent, and horrid man.

—Wagner's music-dramas, like all works of art, have their faults, but it is not for us to insist on these. The first duty in the case of a work that "teems with beauties indescribable, and abounds in magic sounds never before heard by mortal ears," is to call attention to these beauties and endeavor to help everybody to an opportunity to hear them. Future generations will then be able to balance its merits and demerits and assign it its proper place among works of art. The peculiarity of contemporaneous criticism is that fault is usually found with those very things in which posterity finds most to admire. This was the case even with Rossini, whose reforms in Italian opera were violently opposed at first; and it was the case with Wagner's early operas, which are now accepted as almost orthodox, while Jahn and most other critics at the time of their first appearance attacked them with amazing violence and venom. English critics will find that ultimately Wagner's claims to immortality will be largely based on precisely those features of his works which they now condemn—their "ultra-realism," the substitution of dramatic declamation for lyric song, the predominance of the orchestra and actor over the solo-singer, the characterization of events and persons by leading motives, etc. Some of the criticisms betray a lamentable want of dramatic insight. There are too many "painful discords," it is said. But surely a tragedy does not call for sweet music of a molasses-candy flavor. Conflicts of emotions can only be expressed by discords in music as well as in literature. The *Saturday Review* wants to know "whether the truest enjoyment of stage music is to be got from work which of its nature involves so close and constant a strain upon the attention." The *Saturday Review* ought to know that "the strain upon the attention" becomes less after every repetition, and that if Wagner had written his works down to the average intelligence of his contemporaries, posterity would have never heard of them. The funniest objection of all, however, is that the characters in Wagner's Tetralogy are such a wicked set of fellows. This remark shows the disadvantage of being a specialist. For if the musical critics who make it were occasionally sent to see a drama without music, they would discover that good characters do not exactly abound in the best dramas of Shakspeare and other tragedians. Indeed, Schopenhauer regards the prevalence of good people in a tragedy as a sure sign of the author's inferiority and untruthfulness.

—We have received the first number of a new quarterly Italian periodical published at Palermo, and devoted to folk-lore, the title of which is, *Archivio per lo Studio delle Tradizioni Popolari*. The names of the editors, Messrs. G. Pitre and S. Salamone-Marino, are a sufficient guarantee of the high character of the publication, which is fully evinced by the contents of the first number, a handsomely printed book of 172 pages. A letter from Max Müller forms a fitting introduction, and lays down some general principles in regard to the value and mode of collection of popular tales. The contents are as diversified as possible, including customs of the Sicilian peasants, proverbs from the Marches and Bologna, ballads from the Abruzzi, children's games from Montferatto, songs from the former French Department of the Moselle, etc. In addition to the above there are copious reviews of recent works, and a summary of articles in periodicals. We can warmly recommend the *Archivio* to all interested in folk-lore in general, and in that of Italy in particular, to which the new publication will naturally devote most of its space.

FROUDE'S CARLYLE.

Thomas Carlyle: A History of the First Forty Years of His Life, 1795-1835. By James Anthony Froude, M.A. In two volumes. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

THESE volumes cannot be said to add a great deal to the picture of Carlyle already given in his 'Reminiscences.' They do something, however, to complete and fill it out. They also let us still further into the secret of his domestic life, and give us ample means of making close acquaintance with the character of his wife. The readers of the 'Reminiscences' have already seen how much Carlyle owed to her: how the gloom of his life was brightened by her vivacity and unselfish cheerfulness; how her ingenious devotion to his interests rendered his poverty endurable; and how very much as a matter of course the great man took it all, until in the end, worn out with privation and excessive work, she died, and left him to mourn her loss with an unaffected selfishness of grief that threw a strong reflected light back upon their married life. The correspondence printed by Mr. Froude in these volumes reveals the psychological details of the process by which Miss Welsh was brought to the point of marrying a man who she evidently knew from the outset was utterly unfit to make her happy. On Carlyle's part there seems to have been no pretence of anything like sentiment. He had a great contempt for "love," as the following extract from his wife's notebook with regard to his opinions on this subject shows:

"What the greatest philosopher of our day execrates loudest in Thackeray's new novel—finds indeed 'altogether false and damnable in it'—is that love is represented as spreading itself over our whole existence, and constituting the one grand interest of it; whereas love—the thing people call love—is confined to a very few years of man's life; to, in fact, a quite insignificant fraction of it, and even then is but one thing to be attended to among many infinitely more important things. Indeed, so far as he (Mr. C.) has seen into it, the whole concern of love is such a beggarly futility that in an heroic age of the world nobody would be at the pains to think of it, much less to open his mouth upon it."

But he saw very clearly that Miss Welsh had qualities of mind and heart that would make her an excellent wife; and though he did not wish to be bored with love himself, he had no objection to her loving him. She was, according to her own confession, not in love with him, though she admired and respected him greatly. Nor had she any illusions with regard to the

life at Craigenputtock, which he proposed to her. She knew it was a "desert," and that the life would be one of exile, made worse by poverty. Nevertheless, we see from the first that she is going to yield, and it was here that Carlyle's profound contempt for everything feminine stood him in very good stead. He simply insisted, as if the counter-arguments advanced by the future Mrs. Carlyle were only made to be overthrown; and as he did not allow them to have any weight with his judgment, nor to make any impression upon his heart, he was in the end victorious. Most men would have shrunk from the idea of what he knew perfectly well he was going to subject his wife to; but with Carlyle the supreme importance of his being able to carry out his scheme of life exactly as he had planned it, gave his own wishes almost the authority of divine commands.

To the reader of the biography the marriage appears, necessarily, a most ill-assorted union. Carlyle's views of matrimony were those of the class from which he had sprung. He had been accustomed from his childhood in his father's home to the spectacle of the women of the family performing those household duties which in the class of life to which his wife belonged always fall to the share of servants. That a lady of refined and sensitive tastes ought not to be made a household drudge by her husband, probably never occurred to him, or, if it did, it never made any impression upon his conscience. His perpetual "Ay, di me!" over her remains is the only sign he gives of remorse, and that came rather late.

If we turn from his domestic to his literary life, we cannot say that the volumes contain much of interest. To tell the truth, Carlyle was not, properly speaking, a literary man. He felt that he had a moral message to deliver to the world, and for the purpose of delivering it he invented an extraordinary literary vehicle which he used with great effect. But his interests were all ethical. His contempt for all the best known of his literary contemporaries in England is so exaggerated as to be amusing. In 1832 we find him recording in his note-book: "Singular how little wisdom or light of any kind I have met with in London! Do not find a single creature that has communicated an idea to me; at best, one or two that can understand an idea." Macaulay he speaks of as an "emphatic, hottish, really forcible person, but unhappily without divine idea." Rogers struck him as "an elegant, politely-malignant old lady." Moore he sets down as "a lascivious triviality of great name"; and Bentham as "said to have become a driveller and garrulous old man." Again: "Two objects would reduce me to gravity had I the spirits of a Merry-Andrew—a death's-head and a modern London wit. The besom of destruction should be swept over these people, or else perpetual silence (except when they needed victuals or the like) imposed upon them." And he sums up his notes on Lockhart, Hogg, Allan Cunningham, and a few other contemporaries, in this compendious way: "Literary men! They are not worthy to be valets of such." Undoubtedly, criticism conceived in this spirit is valuable in a certain sense, and there is plenty of it to be found in Mr. Froude's volumes; but it is based too exclusively on contempt to be of much use for purely literary purposes. Contempt, in the last resort, dictated a large number of those prejudices of Carlyle's which passed during his life for opinions, and, indeed, it dictated even the method he selected for expressing them. His style, in his early days simple enough, grew, as his authority increased, more and more grotesque, and, whatever may be said for its picturesqueness, no one who had not a contempt for most human traditions on the subject of lan-

guage could possibly have had the audacity to adopt it consciously.

Mr. Froude devotes a chapter to an analysis of Carlyle's religious belief. So far as dogma was concerned, it was mainly sceptical and negative. He did not believe in the scheme of Christian redemption; he did not believe in miracles; he rejected the literal narrative of the sacred writers. We find him, toward the end of his life, telling an inquiring correspondent that he believed in prayer; but he qualified even this confession of faith by the admission, "Words of prayer, in this epoch, I know hardly any"; and added, characteristically, "On the whole, silence is the one safe form of prayer known to me in this poor, sordid era." There is something very amusing in the habit into which Carlyle fell in his later years of recommending everybody to be silent on all possible occasions. As he gained more and more the reputation of a philosopher who could solve for humble inquirers the grave riddles of life (and this he did, in a sense, profess to do), more and more questions were asked which he found it very difficult to answer, and the announcement of his law of silence was a most convenient way of preventing any unnecessary or tedious discussion. Almost invariably he tells the inquirer that the best thing for him to do is to hold his tongue, mainly because he cannot answer his question.

To turn to the positive side of his religious faith, Mr. Froude says of him, very neatly, that he was "a Calvinist without the theology." He believed profoundly in the depravity of man's nature, if he did not believe either the historical account of his fall or in his salvation through a mediator and redeemer; he believed in the permanence and eternity of "the law," and that the law was identical with the will of God. His fatalism was a species of predestination. He despised everybody about him, because he saw that the modern world took a more optimistic view of life than his. They believed, fools that they were, "in expediency, in the rights of man, in government by majorities, as if they could make their laws for themselves. The law, did they but know it, was already made; and their wisdom, if they wished to prosper, was not to look for what was convenient to themselves, but for what had been decided already in nature's chancery."

"Many corollaries followed from such a creed when sincerely and passionately held. In arts and sciences the authority is the expert who understands his business. No one dreamed of discovering a longitude by the vote of a majority; and those who trusted to any such methods would learn that they had been fools by running upon the rocks. The science of life was no easier—was harder far than the science of navigation; the phenomena were infinitely more complex; and the consequences of error were infinitely more terrible. The rights of man, properly understood, meant the right of the wise to rule, and the right of the ignorant to be ruled. 'The gospel of force,' of the divine right of the strong, which Carlyle has been so often taunted with teaching, merely meant that when a man has visibly exercised any great power in this world, it has been because he has truly and faithfully seen into the facts around him—seen them more accurately and interpreted them more correctly than his contemporaries. He has become in himself, as it were, one of nature's forces, imperatively insisting that certain things must be done. Success may blind him, and then he mis-sees the facts and comes to ruin. But while his strength remains he is strong through the working of a power greater than himself. The old Bible language that God raised up such and such a man for a special purpose represents a genuine truth."

This is the best that Mr. Froude can do to make a consistent system for Carlyle. His success cannot be called great. We trust an expert as to the longitude because there are sciences called trigonometry and astronomy, which, as anybody may satisfy himself if he pleases, en-

able experts to calculate the longitude. We trust to the vote of a majority for the very reason that in human affairs there is no such thing as a "science of life" which experts can master, so as to tell their fellows what they ought to do; because rules of conduct must be established and be based on force, and because it has been found by experience that these rules of conduct, when established by a majority vote, are more readily obeyed than when they are established by "strong men" without regard to popular opinion or wishes. Strength will always make itself felt, whether it is the strength of the individual or the strength of numbers; and if force is an indication of the presence of the Deity, it should not be forgotten that "the heaviest battalions" can claim the sanction of divine presence with fully as much reason as the "strong man" in whose name they take the field. If strength and tyranny are of themselves things deserving of admiration, as much may probably be said in favor of the "tyranny of the majority" as for the tyranny of the heroes sung by Carlyle and his disciples.

Mr. Froude may congratulate himself on having very nearly destroyed the authority of his master. It was essential to the preservation of Carlyle's hold upon the affection and respect of the present generation that they should believe that he did understand the "science of life" or "the law" about which he talked so vociferously. But these volumes do not show that he saw much further into it than his contemporaries, and they do show that many of his opinions about it were the outgrowth of a by no means amiable character, and were open besides to the charge of being what he was himself fond of calling "mere wind." If there is not a science of life, there is at any rate an art of biography which Mr. Froude would do well to pay some attention to before laying his hand upon any more dead reputations.

STALLO'S PHYSICS.

The Concepts and Theories of Modern Physics.

By J. B. Stallo. [International Scientific Series.] D. Appleton & Co. 1882. Pp. 308.

THIS volume makes an imposing first impression. It is admirably written, with copious and interesting quotations from the literature of several sciences during several centuries and in several languages, especially German. The author commands his resources ably and well, and has written a book which will no doubt prove of exceptional value and interest to the very many non-experts who deliberately prefer comprehensiveness to depth and accuracy of view. Its many-sidedness is puzzling to the critic. The writer constantly modulates from physics to logic, chemistry, astronomy, mathematics, and other sciences; his drift, or purpose, so far as he may be assumed to have a positive one, nowhere expressly appears in explanation of his almost purely negative, destructive aim. He seems outside all the traditional lines of the schools. He is often positivistic, and, in his keen scent for ontological survivals, writes occasionally quite in the vein of Göring, Laas, and Dühring; but then he excoriates Mill, does not idolize facts or things as fetishes, and has no allusion to Comte even where it would admirably serve his purpose. He is not an evolutionist, rejecting the nebular hypothesis in favor of the theory of meteoric aggregation, and refusing homage to the Undifferentiated of Mr. Spencer. He is not an idealist, at least in the traditional sense; for he abhors metaphysics, and apologizes for a youthful publication in 1848, in the vein of Hegel and Oken, while materialism is for him quintessential absurdity *per se*. Wisely declining to take any of the "through-lines" of thought, our author

may be catalogued—for those who insist on labels—as a psychological relativist, with a strong tendency to take his creed now in too absolute, now in too eclectic a sense.

The drift of what we may call the first part of the book is as follows: The mechanical theory, which reduces everything to mass and motion, as disparate and constant, in holding that atoms are simple, and therefore equal, is "in utter and irreconcilable conflict" with the theory of Avogadro—that equal volumes of all substances, in a gaseous state, with like pressure and temperature, contain the same number of molecules. While atoms cannot be elastic, because that implies variable distance between their parts, it is yet admitted that in gases at least they must be highly elastic—a contradiction which no theory of vortexes, rotation, or envelopes has yet been able to solve. If, as mechanists say, all physical action is by impact, and there are no pulls but only pushes, then gravity and all action at a distance are inexplicable. If motion be indestructible, all energy is kinetic, and there can be no potential or virtual energy due to position, but only a reciprocity of molar and molecular motion. Impenetrability is not a datum of experience; the light-bearing ether at least cannot be discontinuous or granular; the atomic theory has lost its simplicity—only pulverizes facts and explains nothing; and the kinetic concepts are "repugnant to all scientific sobriety," because they explain the familiar by the unfamiliar.

In the second part we are told that the mechanico-atomic theory is a metaphysical survival of mediæval realism (p. 150). Matter is only the most generic concept in classifying bodies, like substance or Hegel's pure being, all alike indistinguishable from nothingness. Precisely the same is true of pure force, which is not a fact, but a generic concept, and not necessarily a counterpart of reality (conceivability being no test of truth), but only a counterpart of experience. By another metaphysical error, these most generic and latest formed concepts are said to pre-exist, and all things to be derived from them in evolution by addition of attributes. By a third error, we affirm solidity and impenetrability of atoms, because we knew solids long before gases, although the former is far more complex, familiarity being confounded with simplicity, and the genesis of concepts with the order of the genesis of things. Hardness is a prejudice: why not soft or fluid atoms? Finally, motion, rest, time, weight are only relations, and there is no absolute thing, standard, space, etc. The transcendental geometry, so-called, only hypostatizes space by the "reification of its concepts."

This résumé affords an exquisite illustration of the insuperable difficulty which an adult mind, of unusual candor, learning, and ability, experiences both in uprooting youthful convictions and in fully grasping the fundamental ideas of science by solitary reading. In his love of potencies and energy of position, which makes his notion of the kinetic theory so superficial; in the ideal, almost dialectic, relativity of what we have called the second part; in the repugnance to atomism, based, perhaps, far more than Judge Stallo is conscious, upon the chasm it causes between the organic and inorganic, Schelling, Hegel, and Oken would still recognize their own haven of ideal, monistic identity. The many ancillary hypotheses, too, which investigators have found useful to meet special exigencies of research—enchainments, thermalizations, valencies, and various dynamisms, etc.—are confessedly not unanimously agreed upon, and there is much residual obscurity which is, of course, increasing as the field of science widens. This circumstance gives ample

scope to the vicious dialectic habit of subtle verbal minds of setting facts by the ears and bumping friendly heads together, or even to a logician who prefers exiguous consistency between the parts of a theory to its flexible and serviceable adaptability to facts of many and diverse orders, and refuses to see that a material, a working, and an ultimate hypothesis must be subjected each to its own radically different test of logical canonicity. Judging our author's own processes by this method, we might call attention to his self-contradiction in rejecting the kinetic theory because it explains the familiar by the unfamiliar, which is precisely what he requires us to do in explaining solids by gases; or we might ask how knowledge itself can ever be explained, if we must always explain the less known by the more known, or convict him of absolute idealism from the principles of the second part. As a "contribution to the theory of cognition" for which it is designed, the work is not in the line of modern progress in that direction, and adds nothing whatever. Science is at bottom metaphysics, with a persistent tendency to "reify" its concepts, which must then be extirpated as ontological survivals—is his drift.

Another capital error which pervades the first part of the book is, that the atomic theory is defined as a physical but criticised more as a chemical theory. It is physicists who are more inclined to reduce everything to mechanism, and no one but a pure theorist would ever think of asserting that any great body of chemical facts, save only thermal and kinetic ones, have yet been even approximately explained mechanically. For physics atomism is a more material and relatively simple theory, while for chemistry it is more formal and complex. After asserting "utter anarchy" concerning it, our author yet manages to recruit a very comprehensive set of propositions which "command universal assent." Yet, although he has unwittingly changed his view from the physical to the chemical aspect, both statements are alike extravagant. From both aspects, but especially the latter, atomism is a didactic, formal, explanatory device, so serviceable that, as L. Meyer well says, a confessedly wrong auxiliary hypothesis often continues to be of great use. The chief unanimity concerning it is not in the form our author calls axiomatic, but as a symbolic and later a graphic system, which might be almost visualized illustratively for specific purposes, but which should not be too grossly conceived, and from which deductions should be very sparingly made for fear of catastrophes. Atomism is the oldest and most widely accepted of all scientific theories; it has created chemistry out of chaos, and given provisional order where it could give no other, and made manifest in a hundred ways that there is nothing so practical as a good theory. It is a complex grammar of facts, or rather a language in which thought instinctively expresses and grasps them, and, like language, its very inconsistencies are often the most valuable and suggestive.

Still more than the kinetic theory, our author fails to comprehend the important formal, analytic, and still more important psychological results which have slowly unfolded from Gauss's fruitful idea of the measure of curvature. He deals almost entirely with the illustrative elements of the problem, the injudiciousness of even attempting which is now generally admitted by mathematicians. Erdmann, whose attempt to rectify this tendency has been widely endorsed by them, seems "simply puerile" to our author, and, although he cites Stumpf, he has not grasped the psychological problem involved in a geometry without the axiom of parallels.

Our author's employment of the word *mass* to mean weight, inertia, or even matter, when it has no sense till one has been assigned it for a specific purpose, may perhaps be taken as a type of a general error, fallen into often even by scientific men, and of which especially chemists complain, by which a theory, or even a working hypothesis, is taken concretely as a basis of deductions, or materialized into dogma. If the philosopher would get perfect command of the facts in a field, and restrain his reason where he has not done so, he might be of great service in making common cause with those scientific men who strive, often in vain, against their own co-laborers, to keep a "fine lucidity" of hypothesis from lapsing into either empiricism on the one hand or dogmatism on the other. If, on the other hand, he only retails the residual but tedious truism of idealism, that things are really thoughts, and that whenever we say matter, cause, time, space, or *quod libet* we are in fact dealing with objects mysteriously more subjective than we dream; or if he would dispense with the brain because it is not a perfect platonic mathematic sphere, or, like our author, with the atomic hypothesis because it does not conform to all the text-book tests of logical consistency, because its "record" does not show infallibility, or authorities differ, or because, as all admit, there are great possibilities outside, then philosophy is discredited, labor that should be better spent is lost, and the thoughtless or immature are misled by vigorous works like this, which, though somewhat less comprehensive than Hegelism, does almost nothing, because it attempts so much. Had he really comprehended the newer problems and understood the laboratory function of an hypothesis, both of which tend so strongly to make the theoretic part of science more and more flexible, transparent, formal, and practical, he would have tried to aid this process along, which is precisely the work science now so wants and needs and wants men of psychological acumen to do, instead of feeling complacency in reviving a method applied repeatedly a decade or two ago in this field—viz., crassifying, developing contradictions, and then sublimating or volatilizing into concepts. In the vast scope of his plan; in the dialectics of the second stage of the above process (which is greatly facilitated by the absence of discrimination among authorities, Helmholtz and Maxwell being in no wise distinguished for his readers from the fanatical Dühring and Zöllner, or from the dreamy Spiller); in the fundamental assumption that these matters can be treated in the study; and probably in the latent animus of anti-atomism, it is not hard to see Hegelism, so pervasive as to be, perhaps, unconscious, venturing forth again into the light of day, tastefully arrayed in the choicest finery of popular science.

RUSSIA AND THE RUSSIANS.—II.

L'Empire des Tsars et les Russes. Par Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu. Tome i. Le pays et les habitants. Paris: Librairie Hachette et Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern. 1881.

NATURE in Russia presents two opposite aspects—vastness and vacuity. Her enormous territories are devoid of variety of form and variety of color. Animate as well as inanimate nature lacks grandeur and power. The picturesque is almost imperceptible. Travel through the Russian plains produces a feeling of satiety almost like a sea-voyage. You open your eyes after a night's sleep in a steamer or a railway-train, and perceive no change of place. The grandeur of the rivers diminishes their beauty: the finest banks are lowered into insignificance by distance. Everywhere you see the same animals,

the same plants, the same trees. The cultivated fields vie in monotony with the forest and the steppe. There are no hamlets, no isolated farms. The Russian seems to dread solitude in the boundless space which surrounds him. The community of property which prevails among the peasants adds to the defect of nature. Here none of those capriciously multiform hedges are seen which embellish the rural landscapes of England or Normandy; the land is level, featureless, sombre. The Russian's fondness for property in common and association in labor is probably owing less to race instinct than to the immensity of space, under a rigorous climate, in which man in isolation feels himself powerless and as if lost.

From the same sources springs an inclination in the opposite direction: the taste for adventure, travel, and vagabondage—an intense migratory propensity. It is easy to explain the peasant's lack of fondness for agriculture, of attachment to the ungrateful and almost mournful soil of old Muscovy; but this disposition has in great part been nurtured by the institutions, by serfdom and the modes of possession. The northern nations have in general less attachment to the soil than the nations of the south, and rural Russia is, besides—from the hut of the peasant to the church and seigneurial manor—a country of pine habitations, "a Europe of timber," again and again visited by the destructive and dispersive scourge of conflagration. Every dwelling becomes sooner or later a prey to fire: why should one cling to so fragile an abode? why embellish it so as to love it? Many a Russian leaves his village for parts unknown as soon as "the red cock" has crowed on his roof.

To this fondness for going ahead in a venturesome way corresponds a moral tendency—the readiness of the Russian mind to plunge into the most reckless speculations; a disregard of obstacles which fears no temerity, philosophical, social, or religious; an astonishing indulgence for temerity in every field. The Russian's thought, like his rural horizon, knows no bounds—it loves the unlimited; it pushes right ahead toward the extreme, at the risk of reaching the absurd. And side by side with this propensity we discover an almost general lack of individuality, of originality, of creative power. A backward civilization is partly responsible for this defect, but its main source is the want of variety and power in the surrounding nature. To the poverty of the latter is owing in great part the sterility of Russian thought. This country offers no images to the poet, no color to the painter, no freshness to impressions or ideas. Hence the vigorlessness and lifelessness of the ancient mythology of the Russian Slavs, as compared with the myths of the Greeks or the Scandinavians. It was amid the grand scenery of the Caucasus, at the very extremity of European Russia—whither a suspicious police has exiled so many literary talents—that Pushkin and Lermontoff found poetical inspiration and a lofty romanticism.

What there is of diversity, picturesqueness, and beauty in rural Russia is derived more from time than from space, from the alternation of seasons rather than from scenery. In the south, especially in tropical lands, the earth glows with tints, but the seasons are hardly distinguishable. In a northern continental country like Great Russia the seasons are strikingly unlike each other; they robe the earth in markedly new colors. The thus varying aspects of nature restore to the Russian the variety of impressions and sentiments which the soil refuses him. Without leaving his village, he sees alternations of climate and aspect such as others witness in passing and repassing through thirty degrees of latitude between the pole and the equator.

These alternations act upon character and temperament, upon the imagination and the mind. In Russia every season has its labors, its holidays, its pleasures, different songs, and even different dances. To the violent alternations of the seasons, which temper him for all climates, the Russian owes a peculiar flexibility and elasticity of organs—a facility of passing from one sentiment or idea to another. To the same cause may be attributed much that in the Russian appears unbridled, eccentric, rough. If he has little intellectual originality and a poorly-developed inventive faculty, he is very often original in his tastes, manners, and expressions. He sometimes evinces a *bizarrie* closely bordering on insanity. Ivan the Terrible, Peter the Great, and Paul are examples of it among his sovereigns. Like his climate, he easily goes from one extreme to the other: his changes of mood, thought, or feeling are striking; the oscillations of his intellect and heart embrace a wide range. He rapidly passes from activity to torpor, from tenderness to rage, from joviality to moroseness, from enthusiasm to apathy, from submission and resignation to revolt; he displays in rapid turns all the variations of heat and cold, calm and tempest. In the individual, in society, in the Government, this propensity to move and act by fits and starts is equally perceptible. Periods of inertia, languor, and despondency are abruptly succeeded by periods of ardor, energy, and confidence. Doubt and conviction, indifference and fanaticism, strangely relieve and almost blend with each other.

The climate, by its rigor and exigencies, renders the Russian inclined to realism, to practical common sense; the grandeur, monotony, and poverty of his boundless plain create in him a disposition to mysticism and sadness. This conflict or alliance of tendencies is illustrated by various striking phenomena—among them by Nihilism. Like most theories which move the Russian mind, Nihilism is an importation from the West. From Europe, chiefly from the philosophical nurseries of Germany, came the first seeds of that spirit of negation and revolt which we see thrive so amazingly in the shade of absolute autocracy. The radical epigoni of Kant and Hegel were the masters of Hertz and Bakunin. French revolutionists and socialists have done their part in developing Nihilism, which is but the Russian form of the destructive spirit of the age. That this general disease has become endemic in the lowlands of the Neva and Volga; that it is there more virulent, and accompanied by special symptoms, is owing to the mental constitution and diet of the people. Nihilism is not a growth of a decade; it existed many years ago, and it has assumed various shapes. There is an active and violent Nihilism, which conspires and assassinates; an older variety—theoretic, vague, and unconscious—permeates the schools and society, penetrating into the very salons and chanceries. Nihilism breathed everywhere, was the fashion, was the creed of students and of all short-haired school-maidens, long before the murderous attempts and deeds of 1878, 1879, and 1880 (and, let us add, the catastrophe of 1881) unveiled it to the world in all its destructive power.

But though an offspring of Occidental metaphysical speculation, Nihilism is not a system, like Schopenhauer's pessimism or Comte's positivism, or a new form of ancient scepticism or naturalism. As a philosophical theory, it is an unscientific, coarse materialism; as a political doctrine, it is a socialistic radicalism, bent less on improving the moral and material condition of the masses than on annihilating the social and political order now existing. Nihilism constitutes no party. Its name, by which we gene-

rally designate the doctrines of Russian revolutionists of all shades—federalists, terrorists, anarchists, communists, etc.—is rejected by most of them. But Russian radicalism deserves it both by its scientific nullity and its destructively negative attitude toward civilization—toward Christian and classical culture, as developed by the Germano-Latin races. The Russian, half a century ago, adored that culture with the ardor of a neophyte; he swore by the liberal principles it had proclaimed since 1789; he has discovered its shallowness and hollowness, and, with the mobility which carries him from one extreme to the other, with the bitterness of a cruelly deceived and undeceived believer, he blasphemes the object of his former worship; he vows to destroy the proud temple erected to those modern idols which, under the usurped names of liberty, equality, and fraternity, give sanction to error, discord, and the sordid bondage of poverty. This is, indeed, a sad self-emancipation of the Russian conscience; a violent reaction against the intellectual, social, and scientific supremacy of Europe. The part of initiator and savior is henceforth to be acted by the people till now left in ignorance; light is to come from the dweller in darkness. Having lost his faith in Europe, the Russian has again begun to believe in Muscovy. He finds his despised country superior to others on account of its very inferiority. This is logical. Modern civilization being once condemned, that country is best adapted for future creations in which the past has left the freest field to the present; where modern culture and art have built so little and have penetrated so slightly beneath the surface that the necessary clearing and uprooting are most easy. The Russian people, having the least to lose by destruction, thus becomes the chosen people of radical revolution. And thus, through the negations of nationality and fatherland, the Russian revolutionist returns to the glorification of country and people, which are exalted in his eyes by their nudity and poverty.

Last Days of Knickerbocker Life in New York.

By Ab am C. Dayton. George W. Harlan. 1882.

THE title of this unpretending volume is misleading, for it has very little to say of the origin or the traces of the enduring stamp left by Holland on the fashions and ways of her colony. It is a slight gossip sketch of the outward aspect of New York, to one who shows no special pride of ancestry in it, about the year 1830, when it had ceased to look Dutch and not begun to look metropolitan—the sort of New York which Mrs. Trollope saw without liking or understanding it. Those of its people who talked about it at that time had a habit of calling it Gotham. Though commonplace enough in that transition period, it was hardly so dull as to deserve a nickname borrowed from the Nottinghamshire village the stupidity of whose rustics provoked a proverb to fit it.

Those quiet years of New York five decades ago, seeming full of life to those who moved and had their being in them, were really a period of dead water between two tides. They came after steamboats and before railroads—after the Erie Canal and before the flood of immigration. The United States Bank and the Missouri Compromise preceded them; the panic of 1837 and the Abolition Party followed. The old Naval war was a memory—the new Mexican war had not arisen. While the *Herald* was unborn, the *American* flourished. The city was narrow in limits, plain in architecture, of small population and simple fashions, separated by a day from its sister towns, by a month from Europe, and by a fortnight from the Mississippi,

which was the western boundary of its interests. Telegraphs, propellers, and California were all to come. We can hardly narrow our minds back into the range of that day of small things. The writer has performed an easy task in giving a faint and imperfect picture of the superficial features of the town when every one in it knew every one else by sight at least. Its streets, churches, hotels, exchange, and the people who filled them are simply described, without any attempt to go below the surface, or connect its existing state, even by historic threads, with its past or future. The brilliant sketches of Sealsfield, published some twenty years later, treated the subject as picturesquely and with far more variety of suggestion and life of associations. Much space is given to theatres and horse-racing, with hardly a line for commerce, the professions, or the press. A modest sermon against the spendthrift whirl of to-day follows naturally upon a careful description of quiet domestic life in the old time. But even this does not show us a Dutch interior, nor touch the scene with any peculiar Knickerbocker color. The book might fairly be called a portrait of New York fifty years ago with its inherited Dutch features omitted.

Nor were those at all the last days of Knickerbocker life. There was every reason, drawn from conquest, commerce, and immigration, why New York should have ceased to be distinctively Dutch, fifty years after the Revolution, long before Boston was anything but an English town or Philadelphia had outgrown the serene state of a Quaker one. Yet that Batavian seed, starting early into so goodly a growth, still yields its sap and vigor to the best of New York life. Knickerbockerism never died out here, because, except within very narrow social precincts, it never degenerated into Chauvinism. As the English colonized abroad, so the Dutch of New Amsterdam colonized at home, by intermarriage with strangers, transmitting the virtues of the mother stock in the mother line; and in hundreds of families where the names of Holland have vanished, the blood of Holland survives. So it is, that though Irish seize the offices, and Germans usurp the shops, and Hebrews rage furiously together on the exchange, the Dutch element, strengthened by English alliance, still holds in New York the churches, the charities, the colleges, the professions, and, ruling through a thousand subtle social influences, keeps the kernel of our people sound.

Physical Education; or, The Health-Laws of Nature. By Felix L. Oswald, M.D. D. Appleton & Co. 1882. 12mo, pp. 257.

WHAT manner of physiologist and thinker Dr. Oswald is, may be gathered from the following question and answer in this book:

"What is the natural food of man? As an abstract truth, the maxim of the physiologist Haller is absolutely unimpeachable: 'Our proper nutriment should consist of vegetable and semi-animal substances which can be eaten with relish before their natural taste has been disguised by artificial preparation.' Cooking, spicing, heating, and freezing our food are, strictly speaking, abuses of our digestive organs."

This view is endorsed, as Dr. Oswald notes, by such authorities as Dio Lewis and by Bronson Alcott, whose "full table of human innerments" may be remembered by readers of the *Nation* (No. 704). It is, in a word, the transcendental or ontological physiology of the visionary reformer, who deduces his maxims from an assumed ideal state of nature, and rejects what is not given in his own consciousness as truly "natural" in regimen, exercise, clothing, sleep, and recreation. Dr. Oswald takes us again over the weary byways of the vegetarian and the tee-

totalité, rapidly disposing of controverted points by the *a-priori* method (as on p. 46), and apparently unconscious, for the most part, of what has been done in chemical and physiological science during recent years. All medicines are for him poisons; all religions, and nearly all civilizations, are race-calamities from which we are to return *en masse* to "nature," under the lucid guidance of works like the present one.

These theses are enforced from a large miscellaneous reading, in which Dr. Oswald displays a more catholic misunderstanding of science, history, and "nature" than we have come upon for years in a book of the present scope. Even when his criticism is at bottom just, as in his censure of Buddhist and Christian asceticism, his authority vanishes before the heat of his style. With books made up of visionary generalizations we are familiar, and with authors who are surer of a thousand difficult matters than those who have given special study to them. Dr. Oswald shows, in addition, a violence of asseveration that is out of keeping with scientific discussion and with the literary good breeding which befits an educated man and a physician. His matter is sometimes interesting; his manner recalls that of the Professor of Philosophy in Molière's "Bourgeois Gentilhomme."

The Index Guide to Travel and Art-Study in Europe: A Compendium of Geographical, Historical, and Artistic Information for the Use of Americans. By Lafayette C. Loomis, A.M. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1882.

THIS attractive and original volume is divided into three parts—viz., the Index proper, whose alphabetical titles refer to art, scenery, history, legends, and myths; a select Catalogue of the noted works of art in the principal galleries of Central Europe; and Routes. The book would be worth purchasing if only for the abundant maps of cities, plans of galleries, and charts of railway and river routes, to say nothing of the art illustrations, which are both numerous and of good quality. The execution of parts 2 and 3 is highly to be commended, that of part 1 with some qualifications. In the first place, Spain and Greece and southern and western France are entirely left out of account; one looks in vain for Athens, or Madrid, Blois, Marseilles, Avignon, Carcassonne, Nismes; for the Parthenon, for the Alhambra, for the Pont-du-Gard (under Ageducts), for the Maison Carrée. Even in northeastern France neither Caen nor Laon is deemed worthy of the tourist's visit; and in Italy the omission of Verona, with its amphitheatre and all its mediæval monuments, and of Rimini seems capricious.

If these defects, however, indicate the author's restricted experience—as, for example, that he has never been in Sicily—it may be said, on

the other hand, that he tells only of what he knows, and is therefore the more trustworthy. Still, even so, the execution of his plan is unequal. He has general titles for Scotland and Ireland, but, so far as we have observed, for no other country. Scotland, indeed, appears to be favorite ground with Mr. Loomis. He gives a title to Darnley, but none to Rousseau, though he has much to say about Geneva, and mentions the Frenchman's (or the Switzer's) statue there, while denying him a place under *Distinguished Persons* (residences and tombs of). Michael Angelo's "Moses" is admitted into the alphabetical arrangement, but not his "David." Mr. Loomis gives a useful list of hotels, and another of painters by schools; but he might well have added one of cathedrals and another of châteaux. In general, foreign names and expressions are accurately printed, but "*Dames Seul*" and "*Fur Damen*," in one line, on page 563, leave something to be desired. Still, after all our criticism, the value of the 'Index Guide' is incontestable.

A Parisian Year. By Henry Bacon. Illustrated by the Author. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 16mo, pp. viii.-225. 1882.

A DOZEN readable papers, each one related more or less in theme to the months in their succession, form the contents of Mr. Bacon's little book. The subjects touched upon are mostly connected with the life of American art-students in Paris, and there is enough of society talk to commend the book to members of the "American Colony" and others. Mr. Bacon can be amusingly satirical on occasion; as when, for instance, he describes his call upon the American Minister (his name is not given), for permission to study at the École des Beaux-Arts:

"I was shown into his presence at once, but I had to wait, as his Excellency was spelling out some despatches in French with the aid of a younger man. At last I was told with a smile that my wish would be granted, but I must first bring an introduction from some well-known person to the Minister. Then I smiled, took from my pocket a large folded paper, the first passport I had ever carried; it cost me ten dollars, and I knew the worth of the spread-eagle; and then those comforting words, 'In case of need to give him all lawful aid and protection.' His Excellency examined the document, looked at the eagle with the harp in its mouth, and the rays and stars about it; it was curious and worth looking at, and I was not surprised at his examining it, but I was astonished when he smiled again and said: 'This is not sufficient. You must bring me a letter from some resident in Paris.' I could not convince him of the importance of an introduction from the Secretary of State."

Mr. Bacon's difficulties in the matter were too intricate for us to follow; but his account of them is pleasantly acidulous.

A new slang word appears in the book—one which the editor of the Philological Society's

new dictionary may be interested to note—the "swabble" (etymology, *ensemble*) of a picture. Mr. Bacon might have told us that the word has a considerable vogue among American students in Paris, and that it originated in an atelier much frequented by them, that of Carolus Duran.

Art Work in Earthenware. Pp. 70.—*Art Work in Gold and Silver.* Pp. 64. By Henry B. Wheatley, F. S. A., and Philip H. Delamotte. New York: Scribner & Welford. 1882.

THESE are concise outlines of the history of the arts treated of respectively. They contain references to the best authorities, and supply illustrations enough to make the text intelligible. They are handsomely printed, and may well serve as introductions to more extended study, while they afford in themselves a very serviceable general knowledge of the subjects. The work on Earthenware treats of Ancient Pottery (following the classification of M. Jacquemart), of Mediæval Pottery, of Majolica, French Faience, German and Dutch Pottery, and English Earthenware. That on Gold and Silver treats of Early Coins and Medals, Ancient Art, Egyptian, Greek, Etruscan, Roman, Pompeian, Byzantine, and Early Christian Art; Gold-work of the Lombards, Spanish Art, Early French Art, the Eleventh Century to the Renaissance, Monastic Artists, Ecclesiastical Art, Shrines, Chalices, and Celebrated Goldsmiths.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbot, Lieut.-Col. H. L. Report upon Experiments and Investigations to Develop a System of Submarine Mines for Defending the Harbors of the United States. Washington.

Appleton's Annual Cyclopaedia, for 1881. D. Appleton & Co.

Barrett, R. S. Character-Building: Talks to Young Men. Thomas Whitaker. 50 cents.

Berill, A. G. The Eleventh Commandment: a Romance. Wm. S. Gottsberger.

Beard, G. M. Sea-Sickness: Its Symptoms, Nature, and Treatment. E. B. Treat. \$1.

Berens, E. M. The Myths and Legends of Ancient Greece and Rome. Clark & Maynard.

Boulton, S. B. The Russian Empire: Its Origin and Development. Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.

Bulkley, L. D. Manual of the Diseases of the Skin. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Catherwood, Mary Hartwell. Rocky Fork. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. \$1 50.

Cox, J. D. Campaigns of the Civil War: Atlanta. Chas. Scribner's Sons. \$1.

Cutts, E. L. Charlemagne. E. & J. B. Young & Co. \$1 15.

Freeman, E. A. The Reign of William Rufus, and the Accession of Henry the First. In 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. \$8.

Forbes, S. R. Rambles in Rome. Thomas Nelson & Sons. \$1 50.

Gleed, C. S. From River to Sea: A Tourist's and Miners' Guide. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. \$1.

Guendale: An Old Story. Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1 25.

Harper's Hand-Book for Travellers in Europe and the East. In 3 volumes.

Hart, W. R. A Study of the Scriptural Doctrine of Immortality. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$1 25.

Helmberg, W. Lottie of the Mill. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$1 50.

Hopkins, L. A Comic History of the United States. Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.

Howden, P. The Horse: How to Buy and Sell. Orange Judd Co. \$1.

Knox, T. W. The Young Nimrods around the World. Harper & Bros.

Le Baron, Marie. The Villa Bohemian. New York: Kochendoerfer & Uric. 50 cents.

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Total Marine Premiums.....	\$5,618,021 57

Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1881, to 31st December, 1881.....	\$4,110,176 72
Losses paid during the same period.....	\$1,775,882 80

Returns of Premiums and Expenses.....	\$924,227 02
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